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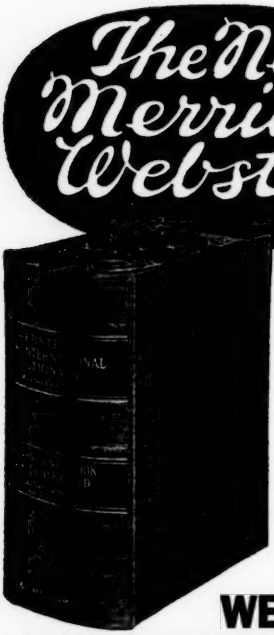


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# EDUCATIONAL METHOD

## COÖPERATIVE SUPERVISION IN A CHANGING SOCIAL ORDER

JULIA L. HAHN

*Supervising Principal, Third Division, Washington, D. C.*

Much is being said and written at the present time concerning the function of the school in a changing social order. There are many theories concerning the best way to prepare children for this new order of living. Some people believe that it is the duty of the schools to indoctrinate for a new social order. Others who might agree to this method of procedure ask for a fixed, though new, order of affairs toward which the indoctrination may be aimed. Still others feel that the social order is changing so rapidly that no one can predict what conditions the children will face in ten or fifteen years, and that the wisest course for education to follow is to develop thinking, open-minded, well-balanced individuals who can adapt themselves to changing conditions and think out for themselves better ways of adjusting to new situations.

An experimental attitude of mind, sharpened and enriched through coöperative effort, is fundamental to such an educational objective as this. Undoubtedly this attitude can best be developed through practice. Children respond readily to opportunities for such development. Teachers sometimes find it more difficult. Supervision faces the responsibility of doing for teachers what the teachers are trying to do for the children. It has been suggested that we describe some of our efforts to accomplish these newer objectives.

### TYPES OF MEETINGS

First we shall outline briefly some types of meetings which have proved particularly valuable to teachers during the past year.

1. *Panel Discussion Groups.*

In the fall, every teacher in the division was invited to join a discussion group. Group I was composed of teachers of less than six years of experience in the kindergarten and first six grades. Group II was composed of experienced teachers in kindergarten and primary grades. Group III was composed of experienced teachers of grades four, five, and six.

In the beginning, small steering committees were appointed for each of these three groups. Each committee elected its own chairman and secretary. All of the teachers in the large groups were asked by these steering committees to list topics of particular interest to them. In the light of these statements smaller sub-groups were formed. These sub-groups met occasion-

ally on their own initiative and made preparations for large panel discussions which were held from time to time throughout the year. All of the members of the large groups were invited to these panels. Members of the sub-groups constituted the panel, but discussion from the floor was encouraged also.

2. *Classroom Studies.*

Many teachers in the division undertook individual or group classroom studies. Such studies were of course undertaken at the option of the teachers. In most cases the teachers suggested the topics of major interest to them. In some cases they asked for suggestions as to possible lines of investigation.

On the blank upon which these studies were reported, one column was used to designate whether the teacher wished a conference with other teachers interested in the same or similar topics. One column was used to designate whether a conference with the supervising principal was desired. Since there were a number of teachers who planned to make similar studies, we tried to save time by calling these teachers together in groups. The members of the different groups decided whether they wished to meet again from time to time to exchange ideas and report progress. In some cases one meeting in the fall was sufficient to inaugurate the studies.

3. *Series of Conferences to Discuss Matters of Interest to Certain Teachers.*

Such conferences were held from time to time, usually at the request of the teachers interested. For example, the junior-primary (first grade) group met every two weeks for a period of time in the fall to exchange plans for new departures with these children. A record form for recording evidences of reading readiness and of difficulties hindering normal progress has been devised by the group.

4. *Advisers to New Teachers.*

A new plan was inaugurated to give additional help and encouragement to new teachers. An adviser was designated for each of them. These advisers were classroom teachers, carefully chosen in view of the particular needs of the new teachers and the ability of the advisers to enrich and stimulate their thinking. Often the advisers were teachers of comparatively small experience who had perhaps encountered the same difficulties a few years before and had overcome them.

Since most of the teachers were appointed at the beginning of the term, a conference of teachers and advisers was held soon after the opening of school. A general discussion of planning, curriculum objectives, etc., was followed by individual conferences of teachers and advisers.

Occasional conferences of the whole group have been held from time to time, but most of the help has been individual and on the initiative of the teacher. In general the help has taken one or more of the following forms:

1. Conference with adviser on particular problems.
2. Invitation to adviser to come to teacher's room after school and discuss work.
3. Visit to adviser's classroom to see her teach and to discuss the underlying principles of her procedures.
4. Invitation to adviser to see the teacher at work in her own classroom and discuss procedures.

The panel discussion groups have perhaps contributed more to a real experimental attitude and to a broadening of viewpoint than any other type of meeting. Both panel members and audience have participated freely in the discussions. At first there was some disappointment on the part of a few teachers when the matter under discussion was not settled once and for all. This, of course, was not the aim of the discussions. As time went on, the discussions became

much freer and participation in them more widespread.

The fact that the panel members made careful preparation for each larger discussion made the discussions much more worth while. Teachers have frequently expressed satisfaction at the stimulation to thinking these discussions have afforded.

Some topics which have been discussed are listed below:

1. The keeping of records (particularly stressing children's participation in record keeping). An exhibit of such records was also arranged by the committee in connection with their panel discussion.
2. Effects of the activities program on the nervous system of children.
3. Planning:
   Teacher planning.
   Children's participation in planning.
4. The development of habits and skills in an activities program.
5. Integration—with special reference to the possible contribution of special subject supervisors to classroom unity of work.
6. Integration—from the standpoint of the curriculum.
7. Appreciation in literature, music, and art.
8. Methods of obtaining materials and problems of limited room space.
9. Problems of the work period.

The range of topics for classroom studies has been wide. Some of these topics are:

1. The classroom library.
2. Organization and operation of a teachers' library.
3. Survey of magazine articles and briefing of articles read for future reference.
4. Creative music.
5. Parental participation studies.
6. Case studies of problem children.
7. Manuscript writing.
8. Problems of integration of the social studies in intermediate grades.
9. Classification of children's stories by grades.
10. Special problems in art.
11. Studies in reading:
    Supplementary reading.
    Remedial reading.
12. Planning.
13. Creative English.
14. Enrichment of units of work.
15. Creative poetry.
16. Character and personality development.
17. General professional reading.
18. Problems of junior-primary group.

The classroom studies have been of very great value not only to the person making the study but to other teachers who profited by the reports.

The plan of having advisers to new teachers has been successful too. It has not only helped the teacher but has stimulated the adviser and offered her an additional opportunity for growth.

The types of meetings described above do not constitute all of the supervisory aid given to teachers in the way of meetings, but they have perhaps been most helpful in keeping the teachers alive to opportunities for growth in an educational world rapidly adjusting to new needs.

# MEASURING SOME SUBTLE VALUES OF PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

FREDERICK PISTOR

*Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana*

Dewey names two major contributions which progressive schools may make to education. One is the development of organized subject matter; the other is the study of the conditions favorable to learning. Of the first type, many studies have been made. Units of work, as actually carried on, have been published by teachers of Lincoln School, Teachers College, and by others. Contributions of the second type, that is, studies of the conditions favorable to learning, are fewer. A number of recent books describe conditions of learning in some of the progressive classrooms and report some of the outcomes, but there is a tendency to omit scientific evidence of controls and conditioning factors.[1] Regarding the nature of scientific studies needed in this field, Dewey says:

> . . . from the standpoint of progressive education the question of method takes on a new and largely untouched form. It is no longer a question of how the teacher is to instruct or how the pupil is to study. The problem is to find what conditions must be fulfilled in order that study and learning will naturally and necessarily take place, what conditions must be present so that pupils will make the responses which cannot help having learning as their consequence.[2]

The few studies which have been made in the field of progressive education have been handicapped by one or more of the following conditions. First, experimenters measuring the outcomes of a progressive enterprise looked only for the outcomes of traditional education, such as the efficiency with which a course of study in a certain subject was mastered. Second, no study has been conducted over a long enough period to make it possible for some of the higher and finer values of education to begin to operate. Most often groups have been subject to the experimental method for only one year. Many cannot conceive of progressive education as a different system of education whose major outcomes possibly are not measurable during short periods of time. Third, adequate techniques for measuring the more subtle products of progressive education have been needed. Lastly, techniques for measuring the process or progress of growth are needed. It is desirable, for example, to determine not only how much pupils grow in initiative, but also to determine the nature, the regularity, and the tempo of that growth.

Thus an experiment in which these handicaps were overcome, in which certain learning conditions were set up as commonly found in progressive schools, and in which certain specific changes in pupils

[1] Barnes and Young, *Children and Architecture*, p. xvi: "In writing an account of this work, the authors have not tried to prove any thesis nor to demonstrate by conclusive evidence that the best method for children is by means of units of work. They are convinced of the efficacy of this means of instruction but they cannot produce scientific data to substantiate their conclusions."

[2] Dewey, John, "Progressive Education and the Science of Education," *Progressive Education*, Vol. V, No. 3 (July-August-September, 1928), p. 204.

TABLE I

ANALYSIS OF THE REPORT OF THE JUDGES ON THE VALIDITY OF THE TRAIT-ACTIONS

| | YES | NO | NO REPLY |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Initiative* may be developed in part by encouraging fifth and sixth grade children: | | | |
| 1. To suggest activities or problems for the group to consider and to undertake | 72 | 1 | 0 |
| 2. To suggest possible ways of carrying out an activity or methods of solving a problem | 73 | 0 | 0 |
| 3. To suggest advantages or disadvantages of procedure | 71 | 1 | 1 |
| 4. To volunteer to be chairman or a member of a committee | 69 | 3 | 1 |
| 5. To criticize work by bringing out good points or by offering suggestions for improvement | 71 | 1 | 1 |
| 6. To accept the word of the teacher without question as final in all matters* | (1) | (71) | (1) |
| 7. To ask questions of other children in order to understand their reports more fully | 71 | 1 | 1 |
| 8. To ask the teacher for help when the work is not understood | 68 | 3 | 2 |
| 9. To show evidence of leadership in group work | 70 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. To vote as the majority do on all issues pertaining to group government* | (2) | (68) | (3) |
| 11. To carry out an original idea in art or in construction work or experimental work (original here means original for the child) | 72 | 1 | 0 |
| 12. To defend a point which appears correct to the child even when the majority differ | 70 | 1 | 2 |
| *Work-spirit* may be developed in part by encouraging fifth and sixth grade children: | | | |
| 1. To bring in voluntarily from home or elsewhere news-clippings, books, or selections containing appropriate material to be shared with others | 73 | 0 | 0 |
| 2. To engage voluntarily in art, construction, or experimentation at home or elsewhere, and to bring in results for class consideration | 73 | 0 | 0 |
| 3. To bring in voluntarily from home, or elsewhere, pictures, samples, or exhibits to explain or to show to the class | 73 | 0 | 0 |
| 4. To engage in voluntary work for the class after school or on Saturdays (providing local conditions permit) | 70 | 1 | 2 |
| 5. To volunteer in emergencies for extra work which will be for the good of the group | 73 | 0 | 0 |
| 6. To use spare time wisely at the beginning of a session | 70 | 3 | 0 |
| 7. To march in a straight, orderly line while passing in the halls* | (8) | (62) | (3) |
| 8. To use spare time wisely when completing work sooner than others | 71 | 1 | 1 |
| 9. To work without depending upon unnecessary help | 71 | 2 | 0 |
| 10. To concentrate deeply on work which requires close attention | 69 | 2 | 2 |
| 11. To avoid passing notes to others at any time* | (27) | (44) | (2) |
| 12. To be prompt in getting materials, in organizing them for work, and in getting started | 69 | 2 | 2 |

*The trait-actions followed by this mark (*) were not used in the measurement phase of the experiment but were added to the original list to determine the care with which the judges evaluated the questionnaires.

TABLE I (*Continued*)

| | Yes | No | No Reply |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Reliability* may be developed in part by encouraging fifth and sixth grade children: | | | |
| 1. To perform assigned or selected duties in classroom maintenance work (e.g. examining and checking returned tools; arranging material on bulletin) | 71 | 2 | 0 |
| 2. To work as efficiently when the teacher leaves the room or is not near by | 70 | 3 | 0 |
| 3. To hold oneself responsible to others for conduct | 48 | 22 | 3 |
| 4. To avoid running while playing on the playground* | (1) | (67) | (5) |
| *Coöperation* may be developed in part by encouraging fifth and sixth grade children: | | | |
| 1. To avoid working with others whose beliefs differ from theirs* | (0) | (71) | (2) |
| 2. To avoid "bossing" others in the group | 66 | 7 | 0 |
| 3. To help others when help is necessary | 72 | 1 | 0 |
| 4. To inhibit actions which interfere with carrying forward the purpose of the group | 70 | 2 | 1 |
| *Courtesy* may be developed in part by encouraging fifth and sixth grade children: | | | |
| 1. To avoid carrying on conversation with neighbors when attention should be given elsewhere | 71 | 2 | 0 |
| 2. To obey the pupil-chairman at all times* | (38) | (26) | (9) |
| 3. To be courteous when speaking to others | 72 | 1 | 0 |
| 4. To avoid touching or borrowing property of others without their permission | 56 | 6 | 11 |
| *Worthy group-membership* may be developed in part by encouraging fifth and sixth grade children: | | | |
| 1. To know and to respect the diversified abilities and resources of the members of the class | 72 | 1 | 0 |
| 2. To be efficient and expeditious in the program of group government and maintenance | 69 | 2 | 2 |
| 3. To be natural and unrestrained at all times | (26) | (36) | (11) |
| 4. To know and to be able to evaluate the common objectives of the group | 70 | 1 | 2 |
| 5. To have contact with other social groups | 70 | 1 | 2 |
| *Good housekeeping* may be developed in part by encouraging fifth and sixth grade children: | | | |
| 1. To bring no materials such as old wood, cloth, tin, or cardboard into school* | (10) | (55) | (8) |
| 2. To keep materials and books neatly arranged in their desks | 71 | 1 | 1 |
| 3. To let no materials or papers remain on the floor | 58 | 12 | 3 |
| 4. To return books, tools, equipment, and unused portions of material clean and undamaged to proper places | 72 | 1 | 0 |
| 5. To keep clean, orderly lockers | 72 | 1 | 0 |
| 6. To keep written work neatly arranged, legible, and free from blots and eraser marks | 66 | 4 | 3 |

were noted—an experiment of this kind is a needed and timely contribution to the study of progressive education. Such a contribution was made in an investigation recently completed by the author in the campus laboratory school of Ball State Teachers College.

### The Problem

The purpose of this study was to analyze and to measure the growth of fifth and sixth grade children working under experimental conditions commonly found in progressive schools.

Two equated groups of children were studied. Group one consisted of pupils who enrolled with the experimenter as their teacher for fifth grade work in September, 1929. These children came from a city school which was abandoned when the laboratory school opened. These children remained with the experimenter for two years as fifth and sixth grade pupils. Group two consisted of children who spent two years as first and second grade pupils in city schools and who were received by the laboratory school as pupils beginning third grade in September, 1929, when the laboratory school opened. These children were taught by one of the laboratory school teachers for two years in third and fourth grades. In September, 1931, they were promoted to the classroom of the experimenter, where they were pupils for the next two years as fifth and sixth grade children. The important variable was the nature of the school experiences of the two groups while in grades three and four.[3] Group one had no progressive school experience prior to fifth grade; group two had two years of progressive school experience in the third and fourth grades of the experimental school prior to fifth grade. Twenty-nine pupils were studied in each group.[4]

Comparisons were made between the achievements of the two equated groups while in fifth and sixth grades in terms of specific objectives in personality development. These were in the form of thirty-eight trait-actions. The purpose of these comparisons was to determine which of the two groups had the superior education prior to fifth grade and during fifth and sixth grades, as measured in part by the methods used.

### Procedure

The thirty-eight trait-actions were selected on the bases of frequency of occurrence in pupil activities, ease of being observed in the classroom, ease of being culled from stenographic records, agreement with class objectives, and agreement with the principles and practices of progressive schools. In order to validate the trait-actions on the last basis, they were evaluated by seventy-three judges identified with progressive schools. Table I gives the analysis of the report of these judges.

Table II summarizes the report of the seventy-three judges on the validity of the trait-actions.

Thirty-four[5] of these trait-actions were recorded in classroom observation periods so scheduled as to be comparable in length, frequency, and type of activity. The observation periods were so distributed through the four-year period of investigation that the classroom activities of every alternate two-week period were measured.

[3] Other possible variables of minor importance as well as detailed description of the experimental learning conditions are given in the author's dissertation.

[4] Only those pupils enrolled the entire period of experimentation and who could be matched readily for the purpose of equating the groups were studied. The two groups were equal in mental age, in motor ability, in home surroundings, and in educational achievement. In chronological age, certain social qualities, and home training, group one was proved to be slightly superior.

[5] Four of the thirty-eight trait-actions appearing under the heading of "worthy group membership" were not observed in the classroom activities of the pupils. Lack of space prohibits including the report on these and some other associated studies.

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF THE REPORT OF THE JUDGES

| Of the 73 judges: | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All voted YES for | | | 5 | of the 38 | trait-actions | | | |
| 72 | " | " | " | 7 | " | " | " | " |
| 71 | " | " | " | 8 | " | " | " | " |
| 70 | " | " | " | 8 | " | " | " | " |
| 69 | " | " | " | 4 | " | " | " | " |
| 68 | " | " | " | 1 | " | " | " | " |
| 66 | " | " | " | 2 | " | " | " | " |
| 58 | " | " | " | 1 | " | " | " | " |
| 56 | " | " | " | 1 | " | " | " | " |
| 48 | " | " | " | 1 | " | " | " | " |
| | | | | 38 | | | | |

The observation periods were of six types:

Type A Practice or drill periods.
Type B Conference periods.
Type C Problem-solving periods.
Type D Creative work or construction periods.
Type E Directed study or research periods.
Type F Before-school periods.

The trait-actions were recorded by trained observers and stenographers. Pairs of observers only were used in period-types A, E, and F. Both observers and stenographers were used in period-types B, C, and D.

The observers were equipped with lists[6] of six to nine trait-actions and mimeographed seating charts on which to record in code the trait-actions manifested by each child. The stenographic notes of periods B, C, and D were given to pairs of interpreters, equipped with lists of trait-actions similar to those used by the observers, who culled the trait-actions from the manuscripts.

### TESTING FOR RELIABILITY

The reliability of the workers was tested by comparing their reports of one lesson of each type selected at random from those for each of sixty-four observation weeks. The mean percentages of agreement of observers in period-types A, E, and F ranged from 85.3 to 92.6. The mean percentages of agreement of observers and interpreters in period-types B, C, and D ranged from 82.4 to 91.3. The degree of reliability of the workers was high and remained fairly constant during the period of investigation.

The reliability of the combined reports of the workers was tested by comparing the first-week totals of every-two-week measuring period with the second-week totals. This was done for each of the thirty-four trait-actions. The $r_1$'s range from .18 to .97, with means of .715 for group one and .720 for group two. The degree of reliability for each of the two groups was marked and high. Likewise the degree of reliability of the distributions was approximately equal for the two groups.

### ANALYSIS OF THE TABULATED TRAIT-ACTIONS

The trait-actions recorded in a single lesson by the various workers were counted in the final tabulations only when they were reported by at least two of the workers. The tabulated trait-actions for the two groups of children were studied in four ways: 1, a general comparison was made of the two groups of children for the two-year periods; 2, a comparison was made of the two groups for the first measuring period in fifth grade; 3, a comparison was made of the progress of both groups in manifesting the trait-actions; and 4, a comparison was made of the trait-actions manifested during the first measuring period with those manifested during the last measuring period. This was done for each of the two groups.

Group two, the group with previous progressive school experience in grades three and four, was proved superior in thirty trait-actions of the thirty-four. At no time

[6] A different list was used for each of the six types of periods. The six lists are given in the author's dissertation.

TABLE III

GRADE SCORES OF THE TWO GROUPS IN ACHIEVEMENT

| Test given in grade | 5.1 | | 6.1 | | 6.9 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Group | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| Reading | 5.5 | 5.6 | 6.7 | 7.2 | 7.8 | 9.0 |
| Dictation | 4.6 | 4.6 | 6.0 | 5.7 | 6.4 | 6.4 |
| Language Usage | 6.0 | 6.2 | 5.4 | 7.6 | 8.1 | 8.4 |
| Literature | 4.9 | 5.9 | 5.8 | 7.8 | 6.4 | 7.6 |
| History | 4.7 | 4.9 | 5.9 | 7.0 | 6.4 | 7.4 |
| Geography | 4.9 | 5.5 | 6.7 | 7.5 | 7.9 | 8.5 |
| Hygiene | 4.5 | 5.5 | 6.2 | 6.3 | 6.8 | 7.9 |
| Arithmetic | 4.6 | 4.9 | 6.1 | 6.7 | 7.2 | 8.4 |
| Total Score | 5.0 | 5.4 | 6.1 | 7.0 | 7.1 | 7.9 |

was it proved inferior to group one. This comparison was for the whole two-year period. For the initial measuring periods at the beginning of fifth grade, group two was proved superior in nineteen trait-actions of the thirty-four, but at no time proved inferior to group one. In comparing the progress of both groups while in fifth and sixth grades, it was found that both groups showed growth. A study of the graphs of growth for each of the thirty-four trait-actions showed that growth was not gradual and revealed the principle of specificity in operation. Group two showed the greater amount of growth in the trait-actions which were manifested by positive or desirable pupil-actions. No comparison could be made between the growth of the two groups in the manifestation of the negative or undesirable trait-actions because group two measured so near excellent most of the time.

### TESTING ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

The pupils of both groups were tested in achievement when they were in grades 5.1, 6.1, and 6.9. The results of these tests are included here to show that the pupils in the experiment did somewhat better than average pupils in traditional schools. It is understood, of course, that the norms for progressive schools necessarily differ from the norms established for traditional schools. Table III gives the grade scores of the two groups.

It was found that both groups did better in achievement than the average traditional class. Both groups improved in their ability to exceed the norm. Group two, the group with progressive school experience prior to fifth grade, was proved to have made the greater improvement in the ability to exceed the norm.

### CONCLUSIONS

This investigation,[7] the first of its kind to be made in the field of progressive education, can be considered worth while because:

1. Some of the outcomes of progressive education, stated in terms of objectives validated by a substantial group of progressive educators, have been measured.

[7] For details see F. Pistor, *A Comparative Study of the Growth of Children under Traditional and Progressive Practices.* Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, School of Education, New York University, 1934.

2. A long enough period made it possible to study some of the higher and finer values of education. Each group was studied over a period of four years.
3. Not only status of growth but also process of growth was measured with two types of groups in a progressive school.
4. Some appropriate techniques were developed, utilized, and proved adequate for measuring the more subtle phases of classroom work.

The methods of measurement employed in this study seem to be particularly suited to the activity school. Since the method is probably applicable to behavior traits of many different types and since the program of the activity school permits much more physical and social activity than the conventional type of school, it is reasonable to believe that investigators in the activity field should use the method with profit.

# TEN ANIMADVERSIONS OF PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

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It may seem a trifle unusual for an enthusiastic supporter of progressive education deliberately and premeditatively to indicate what appear to him to be the major weaknesses of the new program. This article, however, is prompted by the urgent need to "trot out into the open" some of the common criticisms which one hears whispered about by both the supporters and dissenters of the movement. Many seem obsessed with the idea that none of these weaknesses can be met satisfactorily and that the progressives must stick their heads in the sand as soon as a critic says such things as, "Well, what about cost?"

It appears rather unfortunate that many progressives have acted as though theirs is an invulnerable, bullet-proof philosophy of education. Any such talk, of course, is unadulterated bunk because there are certain requisites which may be called weaknesses in the same sense that large automobiles consume much fuel, are generally difficult to operate, and are hard to park.

The ensuing criticisms have grown out of a deep study of literature on progressive education and from numerous contacts with both friends and enemies of the movement. Only those points which seem most significant can be discussed here. There is no need whatsoever to deal with many of the stupid indictments which have been drawn up by some who have little comprehension of the underlying principles of purposeful activity methods. For instance, those who say the new schools hold that "A little child shall lead them" simply do not comprehend the coöperative, joint methods which are stressed by the recognized leaders and capable students.

It is hoped that the discussion of the following criticisms will stimulate critical thinking and perhaps tend to silence the lips of those who believe progressives are unfamiliar with the Herculean problems which must be solved before some of the major steps are taken to effect really integrated educational programs. No doubt my sympathy for the principles of the movement has dulled the harshness of the criticisms, but an attempt has been made to deal with the facts impartially and scientifically.

1. *It is impossible to carry out the required program of parental and adult edu-*

*cation.* Since the American public schools are still largely supported by the local people who were educated in the old school, it is quite obvious that, unless teachers are exceptionally clever in getting parents to help plan the program, many progressive methods cannot be adopted in any local school unless there is first a comprehensive program of adult education. People who still believe in the sacredness of the three R's invariably become rebels when their child does not begin to read a basic reader the first month, is given freedom to experiment and learn by trial and error, is encouraged to move about the classroom as he does in life situations, is stimulated to take issue with those whom he believes incorrect, to question skeptically the tenets of politics and religion, and is given an opportunity to share in the initiation, planning, and evaluation of the educational experiences rather than demanded to follow an inflexible, lock-step schedule of mastering academic subject matter which some textbook writer thinks is suitable to children whom he has never even seen.

The progressive program will not sell itself through the pupils! This should early be recognized by every administrator who is contemplating the adoption of freer, more natural methods of classroom organization. The education of parents to an appreciation of the reasons for the new principles and methods is imperative and very difficult. The education of the community should not consist of a few opportunistic, hit-or-miss attacks. It should consist of a well-organized, balanced, adult-education program utilizing numerous technics such as public meetings, conferences, local press, school publications, visiting days, exhibitions of school projects, speeches, etc. The encouraging part about this work is that there will be victory in the end because the principles are sound. It is no endless goose-chase affair!

2. *Only a superior teacher can satisfactorily use progressive methods.* Even the most enthusiastic supporters of progressive education will admit that in order to obtain satisfactory results it is vitally necessary to have a very capable person stimulating and guiding the activities of the group. It is also true, however, that to obtain what appear to be satisfactory results in traditional schools, there must be a superior teacher. Other things being equal, however, it is generally conceded that a mediocre teacher will get better results by religiously following a textbook or using a detailed course of study as a crutch and in a lock-step, standardized program than when trying to utilize the freer, purposeful methods of the new education. The technics of traditional education are more easily mastered than those of modern education, since they are mechanical and lifeless and do not demand the capacity to think, or an understanding of the life and nature of the child.

The fact that a superior teacher is required, however, should not be accepted as a consoling excuse but should be interpreted as pointing out the urgent need for developing teachers who are capable of helping others master the art of living. For example, no one would argue that modern scientific developments in medicine should be scrapped because many physicians have not kept pace with them and will not be able to use them. Likewise, sound educational methods should not be discarded because many of our teachers do not understand them and are unable to adopt them to any large measure. Hence, supervisors should immediately take steps to help teachers grow in insight and control of the principles and technics of the new schools. To the extent which the need for superior teachers is accepted as an excuse for being traditional, there is stagnation and corrosion of the wheels of the intellect!

Some administrators frankly say that as soon as they can secure these "superior" teachers they will try to organize their school on an activity basis. This policy, perhaps excuse, is comparable to that of the owner of a professional football team, who bargains for perfected talent rather than trying to discover and develop it as does the successful college coach. The policy of waiting might be sound if our teachers' colleges were graduating students who have been educated in an integrated curriculum and who have had first-hand experience in this type of work. Although no one probably knows just what is an integrated program for a teachers' college, so far there are very few teachers' colleges in America which have what even appears to be an integrated program. Therefore, it is disastrous to wait until teachers are thoroughly prepared for this type of work before extensive steps are taken to go as far as teachers can. According to this argument, teachers' colleges too will have to wait until they can employ professors who understand activity methods before they can organize their curricula around the genuine and abiding interests of students! It is very apparent that such professors are not available and will not be until they have taken courses from some of the courageous class teachers who are doing work which they never even dreamed could be done.

It is not possible here to discuss adequately all the factors involved in the realization of a superior teacher in every class. Among other things, obviously, this will be facilitated by higher certification laws, better selection of the candidates for teachers' colleges, more thorough and longer preparation in an integrated school, richer and more suitable materials of learning, and last, the recognition of the responsibility of the principal and supervisor to help teachers grow in understanding and capacity in the new technics. They could well afford to neglect the bells and pencils for awhile and put in some time performing real educational functions!

3. *It is practically impossible to effect continuity of learning or growth.* As is so well known, traditional schools seek to promote continuity of learning by determining in advance (textbooks or courses of study) the things they guess pupils should know and then classifying this information into separate subjects, which are further subdivided into specific lessons that are to be mastered by all regardless of their real needs, interests, and capacities. This is known as the logical organization of the curriculum and attempts to proceed from the simple to the complex, from the known to the unknown, and in chronological fashion. Organization and administration thus become largely a matter of devising minute schedules, promotion technics, teaching devices, and stunts of getting pupils to travel the ancient and worn path that has been so meticulously prepared in advance by writers of textbooks and "builders" of curricula who have courage but not the insight into the educational process.

Naturally these so-called scientific students of education who are so confident that they know not only what pupils should do but exactly when they should do it, as shown by grade placements, object violently to the slip-shod, haphazard methods of the new schools which attempt to develop individual programs in accordance with the strongest interests, needs, and capacities of the specific pupils. They rightly point out that progressive methods are likely to lead to much overlapping, which results in unbalanced or lop-sided growth, or else to much skipping of so-called fundamentals, which results in blind spots. For instance, it was found that a group of children studied boats for three consecutive years under different teachers who were not aware of the previous work in this area of activity. Thus,

these children learned much about transportation but development in other important fields, such as science, was probably neglected. They may not even have heard about Pocahontas. This meets only one of the criteria of the definition of an educated person as "one who knows much about one field and a little about all of the others."

When the school program is developed in accordance with the worthy basic wants or needs of children, obviously it is exceedingly difficult to insure progressive mastery of our social culture—as is falsely claimed the old schools succeed in doing. Even the progressive must admit that the detailed, planned-in-advance curriculum followed so religiously in the traditional school appears impressive and does insure the brief, abstract *exposure* of definite areas of learning in a systematic manner! Unfortunately, however, there is no guarantee whatever that there will be *understanding* and integrated growth even if the machinery is as well oiled as a greased pig on the fourth of July. This has never been very upsetting to traditionalists because they have always been more than willing to accept superficial evidences as guarantees of maximum, balanced growth. They have failed to differentiate between disconnected information and thorough understanding, which unfortunately differ vastly.

As before indicated, when the educational program is intelligently developed according to the important wants and needs of the group, there is a real danger that there will not be continuous threads which insure progressive development of understanding, habits, interests, control, and attitudes. The extent to which the entire culture of civilization is dealt with clearly depends upon the wisdom with which the school program is planned. There are a number of ways, however, in which continuous, balanced growth may be facilitated in the new schools.

First, in accordance with the understanding of the learner special care should be taken to insure that the basal aims of education are clearly determined and understood so that the learners will be aware of the goals they hope to attain. A thorough understanding of the objectives of education obviously facilitates wise planning—helping to avoid unnecessary repetition and blind spots and to outline experiences which will most likely be fitted to their peculiar needs, wants, and experiences. No doubt many of the tragic mistakes in the new schools could have been avoided if the group had put in much more time setting up desirable objectives, such as capacity to think scientifically, mastery of the technics of research, tolerant understanding of the self and environment, vocational efficiency, dominating interests, worthy use of leisure, creative self-expression, high ideals, refined manners, and desire and power to share in coöperative living.

These aims should be uppermost in the minds of pupils, acting as stars of the East to indicate definite and continuous direction to the cradle of culture. Far too often units of work are carried out without any conscientious, scientific consideration of what are to be the outcomes, what methods or experiences are most favorable for achieving those outcomes, and what measures will be used to determine how adequately the outcomes have been achieved. Unfortunately, it is not possible to outline adequate criteria for planning here. It is safe to conclude, however, that a group which has self-imposed, sound, definite goals is going to attain as much genuine continuity as the lock-step, traditional, educational factories.

Second, the teachers should work together as a coöperative group united on a common program rather than as so many independent individuals. All teachers should be aware of the general nature of the program

carried on in the various classrooms and should make contributions when good opportunities emerge. This helps to unify the entire program and achieve difficult aims which may not be attained if only one group is working for them. One pupil recently illustrated this point by saying: "It is not so hard to be thoughtful when everybody is trying to be that way." It is almost impossible for any one teacher to get pupils to be unselfish, kind, etc., unless the other teachers are seeking to achieve the same ends.

Third, there should be continuous, comprehensive records of the major experiences of each pupil and groups of pupils. Although the form of the records best suited to each teacher obviously will vary, care should be taken to insure complete records of such things as methods of purposing, orienting activities, methods used to explore the interests, general and detailed plans developed, committees established, ideas and leads brought out in group discussions, numerous questions and problems raised by the individuals, the specific academic subject matter covered, unusual activities, exceptional work of individual pupils, methods of dealing with the problems of children, checks of progress used, and points of unusual interest.

4. *It is difficult to weave in some of the fundamental processes into integrated units of experience.* The new schools hold that all subject matter should be preceded by, and grow out of, a social need or experience and be learned in terms of a meaningful, purposeful situation. It is exceedingly difficult to achieve this ideal in some special fields of learning, such as arithmetic and music. On the secondary level it is practically impossible to weave in such subject matter as foreign languages, mathematics, and so-called physical education. It has been found easiest to integrate the separate courses of history, geography, civics, etc., around major problems in social studies than to integrate some of the other courses.

Many elementary teachers have also found it very difficult to stimulate and guide the development of situations in which the need for the so-called fundamental skills or habits and knowledges will arise so that children will be stimulated to learn thoroughly how to add, divide, subtract, figure percentages and decimals, etc. One sixth grade teacher recently put it as follows: "We do not learn all our mathematics as an integral part of our major unit of work. Sometimes we have special periods to learn such things as decimals." Even though there may be desirable leads for the introduction of many of these so-called fundamentals, it has also been found very difficult to provide enough experiences and time for drill so that pupils thoroughly understand and master these processes, such as multiplication tables and habits of speech.

It is rather upsetting to those who believe that it is not possible to teach arithmetic, art, music, etc., in connection with the central project to learn that many teachers are extensively and effectively doing so. It is true that they do not cover all of the traditional subject matter, since they regard much of it as a sad waste of time, and think it can be learned much better later on if there is a need for it at all. Not even the most enthusiastic supporter of the new schools would say, probably, that it is possible to integrate such special subject matter as higher mathematics and foreign languages on the secondary level. Obviously, these should be considered special subjects of genuine value to only a limited few.

The rebuttal for this criticism, then, seems rather clear. First of all, it is necessary to recognize that "what man has done, man can do," and therefore get teachers to develop the attitude that the really fundamental things *can* be integrated

around the problem. In order to facilitate the achievement of this goal, it is necessary to determine which things are to be considered fundamental for a specific pupil, and also to seek diligently to create situations favorable for difficult kinds of growth. For instance, many elementary teachers have stimulated the development of a project on a store, a farm, or travel because these offer so many worthy opportunities to utilize mathematics. Much mathematics can also be learned in connection with banking activities, the weighing-and-measuring programs, and cafeteria activities.

In order to encourage the drill essential to develop necessary skills and habits, it is also highly desirable that special, individual drill materials in language, spelling, mathematics, geography, health, etc., be made easily accessible to all pupils. Through diagnostic tests they should become thoroughly familiar with their peculiar needs and the methods favorable for meeting them. There should also be systematic checks of progress so pupils may plan their drills most wisely.

Art teachers have generally been much more willing than the music teachers to try to develop art activities in connection with the study of units such as on China, Indians, and transportation. Those music teachers who have had a vision of the wonderful possibilities of creative, meaningful music have generally been astonished how many "leads" have arisen for music activities in connection with the study of Greek life, recreation of the colonial settlers, Russia, or what not. The tendency for the music group to isolate itself is very unfortunate because no single group can make its greatest contribution except as a coöperative member of a larger unified group, which includes the other teachers, the parents, and all other educational agencies and welfare organizations.

This, then, appears to be a dim path that will eventually lead to a really integrated program. Progressive educators naturally do not have any sympathy with those methods of individual instruction which assume that pupils must learn arithmetic, spelling, reading, etc., at a special time and must work individually. One of my associates responsible for over one thousand teachers recently pointed out the crucial weakness of this type of work by saying, "We have found that these so-called skill subjects are the ones which need greatest motivation." The further they are removed from the vital social experiences of children, the more disintegration, unnatural experiences, and memoriter learning of facts are encouraged.

5. *There is too much freedom, which often leads to license and even riot.* It is charged that this encourages confusion leading at times to pampering with the individual and to riot. It may even promote the development of anarchists! People who have come to think of the classroom as composed of forty systematically-arranged seats for that many listless, obedient pupils get dreadfully upset when they observe a modern classroom with its free discipline, seeming confusion, and diversity of activity. They feel deeply the loss of the strict discipline held to be effected by the cold hand of steel as it taught children the meaning of unquestioned obedience and formal discipline—to act as quiet as a mouse at midnight and conform to every pressure.

There is no doubt whatsoever but that the new freedom in many schools has resulted in license for disorderly conduct and has not promoted self-expression and better self-control. The tales of spitballs and fistal squabbles unfortunately are not always without foundation. Too often pupils have been "spoiled" so that they will probably never be capable of gaining a normal perspective of privileges and responsibilities and the necessity of persistence and hard work. There appears to be a great need

to understand better that freedom is a by-product of intelligent self-control and the development of creative urges, and not something that emerges automatically when the shackles of adult domination are broken. In the same sense that one can become a slave to his faulty appetites for sweet foods, narcotics, and alcohol, a child can become a slave to his selfish whims, wishes, impulses, and urges and thus not grow in capacity to become increasingly more self-directive.

It is not possible to discuss adequately the questions in connection with the freedom granted pupils in progressive schools. No attempt, however, should be made to defend those who are reported to approve of children chasing each other in the room or occasionally massaging the back of a co-worker with a stick. There is a much sounder, saner ground upon which to erect our educational philosophy. This recognizes that each child must be granted a chance to experiment wisely, to learn how to control himself by continuously practicing self-control, and to explore and release his latent creative aptitudes which will lie as dormant as mummies unless touched with the breath of life. Pupils should gain a thorough understanding of the nature of rights, privileges, and responsibilities in their democratic communities and also develop the skills and attitudes requisite for that democratic life.

Every precaution should be taken to protect the continuance of abundant living that is characteristic of the democratic community of the new schools. The anti-social behavior that also is so often reported to be thriving should be discontinued as swiftly as it is possible to help children develop correct habits, attitudes, and skills of conduct. Each child should be guaranteed the right to develop his personality as a coöperative member of a social group without being thwarted and cramped to fit into the adult mold! The new schools have invited much of their present criticism because they have failed to educate the local community to the basal reasons for, and the methods of, the new freedom. They have also tried to overplay their hand at times and have thrown upon children many responsibilities which they could not yet discharge. As a last resort, also, the new schools can always employ the methods of control used in the old schools until children understand what freedom means.

6. *Progressive methods are likely to cause pupils to become "soft-shouldered" and unwilling to work hard.* Critics of the new schools have often indicated the grave danger of developing what they call a "soft" education when children are permitted to do the things which appeal most to their wants or interests and are likely not to be disciplined to do the things in which the going is hard because of steep cliffs, slippery footholds, a heavy load, and a weary soul. This criticism has arisen from the observation that many groups of children have skipped hither and yon throughout the year—shifting often because distant pastures appeared more alluring than the present unit which demanded hard work. It has been reported that one group of pupils actually began ten new projects during the course of a year—leaving behind a "mess" of unfinished haphazard excursions, paintings, plays, arithmetical computations, booklets, etc. Some argue that working upon things which are perhaps a trifle drab and certainly difficult facilitates the development of the habit of hard work and refusing to bend as soon as something else has a stronger appeal. This, of course, is closely linked up with the doctrine of formal discipline which is no longer held in good repute.

The indictments of the critics who emphasize the danger of a "soft" education should be greatly appreciated but not ac-

cepted as unanswerable. No one would probably deny that it is quite impossible to effect progressive, maximum self-development when children are stupidly allowed to follow every whim or fancy which glitters like gold but most likely is brass. Neither would any competent leader in the progressive movement defend those who are so afraid of crippling the child's personality, of crushing out individuality and self-expression, and of promoting disintegration that they lean over backward to avoid ever coercing the pupil or at least demanding that he complete reasonably well the worthy things which he has started. In a world that is so copiously supplied with maladjusted, misfitted persons, conflicts, injustices, etc., it is reasonable to believe that few school programs can be so well adjusted to the needs, interests, and capacities of every pupil and adult that difficulties will not emerge which require occasional use of the *effort* methods of the old education! Therefore it seems fair to rule out any assumption that there can not be numerous opportunities to develop the habits of persistent effort even in the most highly integrated program.

The tendency of some individuals to develop "soft shoulders" and refuse to pull projects through to a satisfactory completion is generally a matter of poor planning. There is often a tendency for the teacher to dictate stupidly the theme of the project and then try to sugar-coat it so that the children will think they are genuinely interested in this particular topic. The fact that they are not interested soon becomes apparent and the teacher again proceeds to drag in a shovel fish and lead the class to believe they would like to develop a unit on sea life. The error here obviously is with the individual teacher who has not utilized adequate means to discover the genuine and abiding interests of children.[1]

There is also a tendency in some cases for the teacher to go to the other extreme and refuse to guide a group to a selection of a worthy project. Here the pupils may accept uncritically the first problem which has been suggested by one or more aggressive members of the group and later on undoubtedly will discover that it is not suited to their capacities, there is no genuine interest, necessary materials are not available, it is too difficult, etc.

As has already been suggested, in all progressive schools it is basic that pupils and the professional staff learn to plan wisely—taking time to discover genuine, worthy interests which should be explored carefully before there is any decision to use them as centers of interest. The group should realize from the beginning that they are launching out on a program which should last at least four weeks in order to be of any genuine value. Knowing that they must wear their suit after selecting it tends to make them more careful than they would be if they thought they could discard it as soon as they saw a brighter one.

7. *Such copious materials of learning and expensive equipment are required that they cannot be provided by many communities.* This means, say the critics, a higher cost which people are unwilling to pay. In reply, we say, no doubt a narrow traditional school is cheaper than one with a broad, rich, adjusted program; however, it is worth infinitely more. Critics of progressive education incorrectly assume that people always want the cheapest kind of education. Since adults generally do not buy the cheapest clothes, rugs, foods, furniture, homes, etc., why do they argue and even fight for the cheapest schools? The answer obviously is that they have not been educated to an appreciation of the needs and value of health units, a gymnasium, a well-equipped library under the direction of a capable librarian,

[1] See Eginton, Daniel P., "Discovering Pupil Interest," *Journal of Education*, June 5, 1933.

auditorium, music room, art studio, shops, laboratories, supervision, motion picture machines, excursions, etc.

The results of education in these matters soon become apparent. Recently I have been interviewing numerous members of boards of education concerning the high school opportunities in small towns in Connecticut. It was most startling to learn how many of them understand that it is quite impossible for a small high school to provide an adequate educational program and how much they would like to see made available a large high school with proper equipment, capable teachers, efficient transportation, social opportunities, etc. Many of these laymen are willing to pay the price for sound goods because they understand why everyone must go to high school and how impossible it is to meet the varied needs, interests, and capacities of a heterogeneous group of pupils unless the school is adequately equipped with art materials, books, musical instruments, scientific apparatus, machines, tools, storage space, playgrounds, etc.

Although it is necessary to purchase much of the material needed in a new school, it is also true that many of the most desirable materials are as free as the sunshine, air, and water; others are accessible at such a small cost that it is quite negligible. For instance, in the development of a unit of work such as on colonial building materials, the pupils generally collect and display materials that are at hand in their immediate environment, such as pictures, models, antiques, furniture, fixtures, etc. These promote a realistic and dramatic presentation that was generally lacking in the listless classroom of yesteryear. Then, too, many of the finest experiences grow out of having the group and teachers plan the furniture and fixtures in their home (the classroom) and then proceed to gather boxes, boards, nails, paints, etc., in order to execute their plans. Many teachers actually resent elaborate equipment because "it robs the pupils of the joy of creation."

In addition to the materials of learning which may be gained by examining the local community, it is also possible to enrich the supply extensively by doing such things as borrowing books from accessible libraries and elsewhere, making collections of pictures, sending to the government and foundations for materials on pertinent problems, requesting the P. T. A. and other local organizations or interested persons to purchase a microscope, motion picture machine, or a curtain for the theatre. There are so many opportunities for those with vision to enrich materials of learning that this weakness does not frighten one who comprehends. The question of providing an adequate physical plant often cannot be answered except by more state aid. This, again, is not impossible if the needs are really made known and careful plans formulated.

8. *Progressive methods are unsuitable for slow-learning children.* Some have found that whereas the capable pupils easily learn to become self-directive and are able to help discover their needs and plan their program, the slow-learning pupils often become hopelessly bewildered and lost. Thus they progress better in the old schools where the work is dictated in advance as a "lesson" to be done between 1:10 and 1:30, March 10, 1934!

It is quite difficult to determine how much such a condition is the result of poor planning and how much of it is inherent in the learning situation. The fact that many schools have found sound purposeful-activity methods are best adapted to slow-learning pupils indicates that the critics are probably crying much harder than their injury would warrant. The tragedy of many maladjusted, slow-learning pupils in traditional schools today also indicates that most

anything would be an improvement over the practice of cruel retardation and the use of unsuitable subject matter.

In order to meet the peculiar needs of some of these pupils, it has been found highly desirable for the teachers to help them plan in detail the things which they should do. It is also helpful not to embarrass them by expecting them to exercise any great amount of leadership in setting up objectives and methods of achieving them. Then, too, they can always be "assigned" specific things to be done in connection with the core problem.

9. *Progressive education does not have a definite social philosophy.* Some maintain that in order to make its greatest contribution progressive education should aim to achieve a definite type of social order, such as Communism or Fascism, rather than merely seek to promote the vague program of democracy. Even though there has never been any adequate social philosophy in traditional schools, seemingly many of its representatives believe they have a right to indict the new schools because of the character of their social program.

An adequate social philosophy has never been developed because it is such a multitudinous task that no one has yet been able to draw in detail the blueprints for the ideal society toward which the program should be directed. This, of course, would incur extensive indoctrination which would be resented by those who champion the sacredness of helping children learn *how to think* rather than merely teaching them what to think. It is believed that one generation efficient in the art of thinking would do more to promote social progress than a century of indoctrination!

One of the basic tenets in the progressive philosophy of education is that of insuring adequate socialization or coöperative living. The whole program aims to encourage desirable individuality but to eliminate the rugged individualism suitable for a frontier civilization. It is imperative to foster social efficiency suited to an interdependent, industrial society. Pupils who are educated to serve rather than exploit humanity probably will be capable of making effective adjustments even though they have no conviction about the control of oil!

10. *Children are not adequately prepared to meet the disappointments, rebuffs, and injustices of adult life.* Progressive schools encourage the development of an unreal world by catering to the needs, interests, and capacities of each pupil! There is a real danger that children will be overpampered and spoiled, due to the large amount of attention given to them; also because it is not believed desirable to force them to do disagreeable things, since there is likely to develop negativism and dislikes which will persist throughout life.

The numerous "spoiled" children and adults whom one now constantly contacts gives conclusive evidence that the programs of many schools and other local educational agencies are so faulty that many do not learn the nature of privileges and responsibilities and how to behave as coöperative members of a social group. It is also true that some over-solicitous teachers in the new schools have leaned over backward to avoid the use of the rod as a temporary means of redirecting the behavior of the child into worthy channels. Others perhaps have led children to believe that our social order is somewhat of a Wonderland overflowing with milk and honey, rather than a disillusioned place of wars, unemployment, lawlessness, selfishness, race prejudices, poverty, diseases, incompetent leadership, etc.

If children spent all of their time in the schools, there would be much more point to this charge of shielding them from the pitfalls which are just around the corner from the school building. However, since they are coming in direct contact with our

maladjusted social order during the remaining hours of the day, it is hardly possible that they will not be quite aware of blind alleys, political pulls, and soft-pedaling patronage!

It is also true that the new schools emphasize greatly the desirability of realistic living, of having children explore their environment first-hand—seeing how the farmer toils, the factory worker operator becomes a cog in a standardized machine, the mother in the slum raises six talented gangsters, the merchant sweats to eke out his daily bread, and the politician sways back and forth to test the direction of the wind so he can sail with it. Such experiences serve to orient pupils to our problems and make them alert and sympathetic to the need of profound social changes. Such children should be much better prepared to meet these hardships than the pupils raised on a diet of artificial lessons in textbooks!

Since this criticism is voiced so often, progressive schools should be very careful that they are not failing to prepare children to make effective adjustments in later life. Not that children should in any sense be gloomy deans worrying about adult problems! Such problems, however, should be intelligently handled on their own level as opportunities arise for giving them worthy consideration.

# THE SOVIET EXPERIMENT IN PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

## The Use of School Textbooks

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This is an era of great experiments and reappraisal of values. Extreme political, social, and economic doctrines are being tried, and some of them have already resulted in important conclusions.

One of the most interesting of these is the Soviet experiment in education which, in one form or another, has been going on for the past sixteen years. Several school statutes have been published. School programs have been substantially changed no less than six times. Various modern methods of teaching, such as the active-labor method, the "complex" method, the Dalton plan, and others, have been tried and rejected. For some time the school itself has been regarded as an institution that should gradually die away and be substituted by working communities and production plants. Finally, by recent decrees of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, the Commissariat of Public Education has been instructed to publish lasting school programs and stabilized textbooks, and to switch to the systematic study of school subjects.

The question of use of textbooks in the schools is one of the most important in the problem of imparting knowledge to young folks. They practically determine both the subject matter and the method of teaching. Besides, they represent a tangible part of education which can be analyzed without heat and bias and can be objectively treated without provoking controversial feelings. A brief historical sketch[1] will undoubtedly

[1] This article was written in October, 1933.

place the matter in proper perspective and make it more intelligible.

### The Russian Pre-Revolutionary School

The Russian pre-revolutionary school had its merits and its defects. While it gave the student sufficient instruction in mathematics, history, geography, and literature, it failed to impart knowledge in general sciences, foreign languages, and especially in what is called "civic training" or "Bürgerkunde." It was permeated with formalism and pedantry that often made real progress impossible. But what was of chief importance was the fact that all social groups and nationalities did not enjoy equally the existing educational facilities. Only fifty-two per cent of the children of school age were in the schools of Russia when the Revolution started in 1917.

The theoretical doctrine of Communism gives little room to the matter of progressive education. Before the Revolution the future leaders of the present Soviet education gave only general consideration to the matter of school system and hardly went further than the average political campaigner. At best, the fundamental problems of progressive education, such as individual differences, pupils' interests, school subjects, and class discipline, were not tackled by them. Since the general reforms of 1861 to 1870, however, Russian liberal thought had been deeply engrossed in the study of school problems. Russian dreamers visualized a "new man" and a "new society," and devoted educators rallied to the cause of the people's enlightenment. New pedagogical theories were evolved, new school programs worked out, and new methods of teaching suggested; articles on contemporary pedagogical movements abroad found their place on the pages of Russian educational magazines. As a result, when the October Revolution broke out in 1917, the Soviet reforms in education naturally showed a firm reaction against the restrictions in pre-revolutionary schools, although many changes had already been made by the provisional government.

### First Steps in Reform

The first step was to abolish social and national discriminations. Then the most radical theories were put into practice; but these theories did not evolve from actual experience. Vague slogans of progressive education were taken literally and put into operation. Education should develop "a man in the fullest sense of the word" (Belinski); education is "a continuing reconstruction of experience" (John Dewey); "education is life"; "the school is a place of reality"; "learning by doing"—these were some of the slogans. Thus the reform started. What Soviet education aimed at was "the development of a harmonious personality." In August, 1918, the Collegium of the Commissariat of Public Education ordered that "textbooks shall be abolished from the school in general." The Commissariat further directed that "each school shall establish a library to be used by both teachers and students. Each library shall have fiction as well as scientific books." The underlying theory of this decision was to conform with the ultimate ideals of progressive education, namely, that there must be no separate subjects in the schools, such as mathematics, geography, Russian, but that all education must be centered around the study of real work and the methods of accomplishing it. The so-called self-help method was put into operation. The children were so busy scrubbing floors, washing windows, and firing stoves that there was little time left for school subjects. A general lowering of the level of scholastic attainments resulted because, as one teacher reported, the children "were too tired"; they "had no time for lessons." This was recognized by the Commissariat of Public Education in its official report for the years 1917-

1920, which stated: "The attempts at a direct realization of this scheme . . . have given meager and sometimes negative results. They inevitably tended either to narrow training in some craft or to a very coarse form of manual work which were quite unnecessary from a pedagogical point of view and were exhausting for the weak organisms of children."

### School Programs

In 1921, the first school programs were published but no provision was made for supplying the schools with textbooks. More than that, the Commissariat of Public Education held that "a suitable textbook in arithmetic cannot be set up at all. Each school has to have a text of its own, i.e., the text must be set up by the students themselves." . . . "Many a teacher is troubled," says the official document, "by the absence of texts in arithmetic. It is a misunderstanding based on routine and habit. Life gives us so many problems that there is no necessity for inventing them in arithmetic; they spontaneously suggest themselves to the students."

In 1923, new school programs appeared, which were divided (after DeCroly and Lighthardt) into three subjects, Nature, Labor, Society, the philosophy being that the organization of labor is based on nature, and the organization of society is based on labor.

### The Demand for Textbooks

Again the schools were in need of suitable texts. Teachers complained that they would not be able to conduct their work satisfactorily; parents, especially the peasants, demanded "practical knowledge" for their children; Soviet publicists mocked the new school practice as "a device for doing nothing." The situation continued until, in 1925, the question was brought to the attention of the joint conference of the representatives of experimental schools and methodological bureaus. It was then decided to publish a series of booklets for the four-year elementary school. The nature of those booklets may be gathered from their titles: "Let Us Be Strong and Healthy," "A Young Agronomist," "A Young Astronomer," "A Collection of Songs and Plays." Students of secondary schools were expected to acquire their information from contemporary newspapers and magazines and by studying the surrounding conditions of actual life. As to the text itself, it was established in the form of so-called "working" books which, as the assistant of the Commissar of Public Education has lately observed, "contained everything but the subject matter commonly studied in schools." The natural sciences, the social sciences, manual work, and even skills were blended together in such a way as to give the student an idea of "separate stretches of reality." At the same time the question arose, "Where should those working books be compiled, in the centre or on the periphery?" It was decided that the central authorities should lay down the general principles of the working books and define their rôle in teaching, but the books themselves should "be stuffed with regional data" and "filled with local aroma"; that is, they had to be compiled by local authorities, which was quite logical. The school with its teachers and apparatus as it functions in other countries was discredited. The student was to look for information to nature, the methods of production, and the social conditions of his environment. Evidently, the central authorities were unable to compile a text containing the student's own milieu.

The work of making up new school books did not go smoothly. To write new stories, to compile new figures, to arrange the data found so as to make it easily assimilative and at the same time convey the materialistic ideology that was supposed to supplant re-

ligion and morals proved to be not an easy task. It was, therefore, decided to convoke an all-Russian conference on school books. The Commissar of Public Education himself branded the texts already published as "sawdust spiced with vaseline." Nevertheless, as there was strong approval on the part of a certain group of delegates headed by N. K. Krupskaya, the conference decided on the "reading booklets" for the elementary school and the "working books" for secondary schools, and further concluded that all fables, fairy tales, and other unrealistic stories had no place in schools as material for reading or instruction because, it was argued, they distort the picture of real life and are bemuddling to youthful minds.

### Failure of System and Subsequent Changes

It is hardly necessary to argue that detailed theoretical knowledge could not be acquired from the study of outward life. Still less was it possible for children to learn the economic and political processes of the present world by studying their surrounding local problems. These processes have become too hidden and too complicated even for adults to understand. The system, therefore, would not work and could not bring satisfactory results. This was felt as early as 1925, when the Moscow Commissariat of Education issued a circular to the effect that the teaching of foreign languages had "to be freed from an artificial and arbitrary connection with the complex topic" and had to be taught in the regular way. In 1926, at the fifth congress of the presidents of local boards of education, it was revealed that the peasants complained that after two years of schooling the children were unable to read. When the teachers were questioned, they replied that they adhered strictly to the present method, but that the skills in reading were not included in this complex system. Of course, this held true for the skills in mathematics as well. As for writing, the Assistant Commissar of Public Education found the instruction "in a very critical state"; the children simply did not know how to write correctly. The causes were deemed to be "the dry and difficult programs" and "very bad textbooks." In 1926, there followed the restoration of the Russian language, geography, and literature as independent school subjects.

The year of 1927 brought a radical change. Again new programs were issued. The division of subjects into Nature, Labor, and Society was abolished and the traditional subjects in the secondary schools as well as part of those in the primary schools were restored. The new curriculum specified the amount of knowledge and the number of hours of instruction for each subject. But the problem of textbooks, unfortunately, remained unsolved. The same working books were used, in spite of the fact that the restoration of school subjects proclaimed the necessity of new textbooks.

This situation continued until 1930, when the forceful collectivization of small farms began. The social atmosphere demanded organized propaganda on the part of all state institutions. The school had to do its part through class instruction and printed aids. The second all-Russian conference on "study books" was convened; and, dominated by the official viewpoint, passed a resolution which, among other things, resolved: that "regional and all-Union texts shall be made in the form of 'loose-leaf' books," that "the conference is decidedly against the principle of stabilized textbooks," and that "in parallel with the basic text there should be a journal-text and a newspaper-text." A faint criticism on the part of some delegates that such a policy would be detrimental to the cause of education was decided to be reactionary and summarily discarded. The official viewpoint went even further. In the same year the head of the Department of Social Education again pro-

posed the abolition of textbooks and introduction of a card system which was deemed "more suitable to the laboratory method of teaching."

### Decision of the Central Committee

The matter remained in abeyance until the fall of 1931, when the Central Committee of the Communist Party made a sweeping decision to do away with all radical aspirations and to put the whole matter of school instruction on the practical basis of teaching separate school disciplines. The reason given for this was that the school had failed to supply the young with the information necessary for their work under the new conditions and for a continuation of their education at college and university. The decree of the Central Committee of the Communist Party reads in part as follows:

> The basic defect of the school at present is that the schooling does not give a sufficient amount of general knowledge and does not satisfactorily solve the task of preparing the young for technical colleges and universities, nor does it give the young a thorough command of the fundamentals of science (physics, chemistry, mathematics, native language, geography, etc.). . . . It is imperative that the Soviet school, in using various new methods of instruction that help in developing initiative in future builders of Socialism, should at the same time wage a decisive fight against light-minded experimentations in method, against the mass introduction of methods which have not been previously approved in practice, as especially was recently demonstrated in the application of the so-called "project method." The attempts to put the "project method" into operation of all school work practically tended toward the ruin of the school itself.

Apparently the leaders of the Commissariat of Public Education did not comprehend the full meaning of the above decision, because, although the school programs were revised and some changes suggested, the situation with regard to textbooks remained unsatisfactory. The new texts still contained vague and scattered material and differed little from the old. Moreover, the presidium of the central committee of the union of educational workers of the Commissariat passed a resolution in March, 1932, which held the standardization of textbooks to be "wrong and politically obnoxious."

Another decree of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, in the fall of 1932, left no doubt as to the value of the experiment and the course to be taken. The Party denounced the existing school programs, the methods of instruction, the school discipline, and the direction and supervision. Among other things, the decree prescribes: "To expel the laboratory-brigade method of instruction" (which was a modification of the project method); to present the school subjects "in a systematic and sequential way"; to train the pupils "in the use of textbooks"; to take "single classroom recitations as units of work" in both the elementary and secondary school; to establish at the end of the year "a simple method of checking up individual attainments" (compulsory examination); and, finally, "to work out methods of teaching separate school subjects." Principals and teachers are made responsible "for the maintenance of discipline among the pupils" and are entrusted with ample authority for that task.

### The Return to Textbooks

The reader will no doubt observe that the latest trend in educational policy has left no trace of the former numerous undertakings. The persistent educators could not see, however, how all the new ideas could be carried out and how the subject matter should be constructed. Then, in the way of completing the new policy outlined in its first two decrees of 1931 and 1932, and with bitter sarcasm about the "revolutionary attainments" in the field of education, the Central Committee of the Communist Party promulgated another decree on February 12,

1933, that put an end to all uncertainties. This decree branded as fallacious the policy of frequent changes of programs and texts, and prohibited further publication of working books, "loose-leaf" books, and other concomitants of "endless reconstruction" and "projecting." The Commissariat of Public Education has been authorized to issue new systematic textbooks on regular school subjects to be used no less than four years. The local boards of education are permitted to make some changes in them, but only with the permission of the central authorities. Thus, one phase of the Soviet experiment in education is ended.

### Summary

By way of summary, the entire period can be divided into four parts: (1) the years 1917-1923, when the schools were without textbooks; (2) the years 1924-1931, when all kinds of aids were used—pamphlets, working books, local texts, cards, "loose-leaf" books, journal-texts, newspaper-texts, clips, etc.; (3) the last two school years, 1931-1932, and 1932-1933, which passed in the atmosphere of understanding of, and adjustment to, the policy on the part of the Commissariat of Public Education; (4) the present policy of restoration of a lasting curriculum and stabilized school texts.

The new textbooks that are now in use, although not being without certain flaws, show a marked step in the right direction. They compare favorably with anything that has been published for the past ten years. They are systematic in treatment of subject matter and are especially helpful to the inexperienced teacher.

From a purely scientific point of view, it is worth while knowing why the Soviet experiment in progressive education has failed. Soviet leaders in education had no respect for liberal ideas in pedagogy and some Russian liberal traditions in school practice, nor had they sufficient insight into the real problems of contemporary school needs to see what measures were necessary and what changes were practically attainable. They were not interested in such things. As in the field of economics, the whole course in educational policy has been dictated, not by scientific prognoses and practical needs and calculations, but by wilfully set aims and objectives. It is true that science can tell us nothing about purpose and quality, but at least it can express quantitative relationships and rates of attainment. But precisely these things have been disregarded; and, as the Soviet tasks were in proportion to the wishes on which they were based, so the effects of the policy embarked on have been commensurate with the possibility of their attainment.

### Essential Sources

The declaration of the People's Commissar of Education of October 29, 1917.

The circular letter of the Commissariat of Education of August, 1918, concerning the abolition of textbooks.

Committee on textbooks in 1924.

The resolution of the convention of the representatives of experimental schools and methodical bureaus in 1925.

The first conference on school textbooks and readers in May, 1926.

The decision of the Collegium of the Commissariat of Education of March 28, 1930, about textbooks.

The second all-Russian conference on "study books" in 1930.

The circular letter of the Commissariat of Education of June 30, 1930, concerning the repudiation of stabilized texts.

The decree of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of September 5, 1931.

The resolution of the Presidium of the Central Committee of the Union of Educational Workers of March 3, 1932, concerning the stabilization of textbooks.

The decree of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of August 25, 1932.

The decree of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of February 12, 1933.

The school programs of 1933.

The school textbooks of 1933.

# OLD INDIVIDUALISM AND NEW METHOD

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When Professor Bagley's criticism of the Progressives[1] came out last year, I, for one, expected a salvo of replies. I was disappointed. What did appear was too meager and too casual. One statement, written by Dr. Cox,[2] appeared as an editorial in Educational Method. Many must have felt at the time that it would have been very helpful if Dr. Cox had gone into a full discussion of the nature of the controversy. The issue is an old one, of course, and may seem somewhat threadbare to some, but as a problem of educational method it is so basic and pervasive that it should perhaps be dealt with persistently until it ceases to bother us. What follows is an attempt briefly to restate the problem as viewed from a certain standpoint.

In Bagley's criticism of the progressive schools and of the philosophy of pragmatism associated with these schools, we are told that it is dangerous to try to mix the "work" and "play" attitudes. So also with interest and effort, and with freedom and discipline. He informs us that if we fail to recognize the contrasts between work and play, between interest and effort, between freedom and discipline, we get, as a result, individualism. To understand how Bagley's thinking comes out this way, we need to look into his psychology. In a book old in years but still influential, Bagley wrote the following:

> It is clear that the inborn or brute tendencies which exist in man until he is educated away from them are, in reality, legitimate products of heredity. Yet they are in their essence purely individual, and make for the satisfaction of individual desires. They are opposed to everything that is social and altruistic. But the conquest of these tendencies is universally agreed to be a process of moral development; while, from its very nature, it is also a process of social development. The keynote of morality is self-denial; yet the very term "*self*-denial" implies the denial of the self to others —the true essence of the social spirit.[3]

Here in plain English that none of his readers can mistake, Dr. Bagley states his idea of individualism. Our inborn impulses are "purely individual," and they are "opposed to everything that is social and altruistic." For Bagley, "individualism" means "selfishness."

It is only fair to state that the words quoted above were written by Bagley many years ago. Perhaps they should not in justice be used as I have used them. If Professor Bagley still believes, however, what he wrote then, we can understand his insistence on the contrasts and separations between work and play, interest and effort, and freedom and discipline. Work, effort, and discipline represent what is social and need to be applied to human nature from without to eradicate or provide a veneer for what is "individual." If Dr. Bagley does not believe now what he wrote in the quota-

[1] Bagley, W. C., "Modern Educational Theories and Practical Considerations," *School and Society*, 37:409-414 (April 1, 1933).

[2] Cox, P. W. L., "Progressive Education Gets Another Scolding," *Educational Method*, 12:495-497 (May, 1933).

[3] *The Educative Process*, p. 59.

tion above, he owes it to the cause to disavow the belief.

The separation and opposition of individual and social, which Bagley asserts, sets him the task of bridging the gap between these two. Since, in his theory, human nature cannot out of its own inclinations and experience contribute to this result, he has remaining only one way to turn the trick—appeal to the trans-experiential.

To see how Bagley makes the appeal to something beyond man's experience, we may note what he has to say in another book in a chapter on the "criterion of value" in education.[4] Here he writes that the individual has always been subordinate to the race. Experiences are "good" and "bad" primarily for the race, and not for the individual. The fundamental law is that of "race-primacy." Men must not act primarily for themselves but for the race. It would appear that this is the meaning, therefore, as Bagley conceives it, of Kant's dictum, "Act so that the maxim of thy will may always and at the same time hold good as a principle of universal legislation," for Bagley says of this dictum that it is "the clearest formulation of the social criterion of conduct." Kant, of course, meant this "categorical imperative" to exclude all consideration of consequences in the concrete experience of individuals. The principle was to give direct guidance. So, too, with Bagley's idea of a duty of individuals to serve the race. It excludes consideration of the consequences of acts in the lives of individuals. The one interpretation which would make both Bagley's and Kant's dicta workable is denied by these authors, the interpretation, namely, that the dicta are recommendations to us that we act in the light of a wide and impartial survey of possible consequences. This service would be genuine, for it would keep us from allowing biases to operate too narrowly and would thus improve action by making it conserve more values in experience. It almost appears that Bagley opens the way for us to interpret his dictum in this way when he states the criterion for social progress as "achievement . . . which promotes among all men the possibilities of further achievement." But when we read that the welfare and happiness of others is to be desired only "because what we term happiness is a condition of achievement," we begin to be doubtful of the possibility of keeping his standard within experience. Then a moment later we lose hope as we read:

> . . . one works for the race . . . that, so long as the human species shall exist, it may continue to participate in that great cosmic process which we call evolution; and that, when the end comes, and the scroll is at last rolled up, it shall be a scroll worthy of the only species of organic life into whose keeping has been intrusted the consciousness of purpose.

Bagley's primary concern is a *cum laude* cosmic record for the race, and the "duty" which he introduces to bridge the gap between the individual and the social is born of the desire to realize this trans-empirical value.

To impose upon men a "duty" which subordinates to whatever end their own experience of what is good for *them*, is exactly to send men for guidance to an authority beyond their own experience and intelligence. Standards must be received ready-made. Note, for example, how Bagley is driven to say of moral standards, at another point in the same book, that the more important thing is not that people understand them but that they hold fast to them.[5] Under these circumstances "duty" easily becomes a mask behind which vested interests masquerade to maintain the status quo. Failing this, competition for control becomes the order of the day, for, if we subordinate

[4] Bagley, W. C., *Educational Values*, pp. 107-116.
[5] *Educational Values*, p. 62.

present observable consequences in human experience to another end beyond these, anybody's standard is as good as another's. Reliance upon experience and intelligence is at a minimum when trans-empirical ends are sought.

Bagley's outlook avows a "social aim"; it is in fact the prize individualism of all. An individual is first conceived in such a way as to make it impossible for him to participate in his own socialization. Secondly, what is then done to bridge the gap thus created must of necessity be in the form of an appeal to something beyond experience, and the introduction of a "duty" to an external cause. The conclusion is sure: the gap cannot be closed. A theory which conceives the individual and the social as opposed to each other is fated from the beginning to lose the genuinely social.

This gets us back to the point from which the examination of Dr. Bagley's psychology started, namely, his belief that if we fail to treat play and work, interest and effort, freedom and discipline, as pairs of separate and contrasting psychological factors, the result is "individualism." Our examination shows what kind of psychology goes along with this belief. The theory that sets up these separations and contrasts is itself based upon an individualism which is incurably anti-social.

What now is the pragmatic psychology which is basic to educational Progressivism, and how does it look at Bagley's contrasting factors? To begin with, this psychology holds that there is no innate conflict of the individual with the social. The line of change is not from selfishness to altruism, which involves conflict and struggle, but from less participation with his fellows to more, which means growth both of social institutions and of individuality. Here is an individualism, it is true, but one which, in contrast to Bagley's individualism, is not opposed to the social but necessary to it. This point of view in itself eliminates the need for the contrasts which Bagley insists upon.

Further than this, however, the Pragmatists assert that social guidance of conduct is not to be found by going beyond experience for it. You must start with what is promising at hand and work with that. They, therefore, have no "duty" to a transcendent end to guide them, and hence are led to cultivate the impulses of man upon which Bagley thinks it necessary to wage war.

This recourse of the Pragmatists to experience means, of course, a reliance upon intelligence. It means this, however, not only because guidance is sought within man's experience, by man and for man, but also because the Pragmatist understands intelligence itself to be a way in which man's impulses operate with respect to one another. They believe that intelligent behavior requires a progressive reorganization of impulses.

A clear account of what the Pragmatist means by the reorganization of impulses or responses is given by B. H. Bode in a discussion of purposive behavior.[6] Beginning with a consideration of how responses become organized into adaptive behavior, he distinguishes between the behavior of lower animals and humans by pointing to man's lack of adaptive behavior in the form of pre-organized responses, his greater flexibility and range of responses, and his greater consequent need for organization of his reactions. This leads into a description of purposive behavior, in which Bode shows how an intelligent act consists of a progressive reorganization of response by means of reconstruction of the stimulus. The boy-apple-fence-dog-shed situation which he employs as an illustration is too long for recounting here. Its point is clear. Intelli-

[6] Bode, B. H., *Conflicting Psychologies of Learning*, pp. 244-249.

gent action originates in blocked response, consists of the reorganization of the response, and serves the need which constitutes the occasion of the response. It is purposeful behavior because the final stage of the progression gives direction to reorganization from the first.

It is because this point of view insists upon an opportunity for the growth of intelligence or mind in all human activity that the contrasts which Bagley sets up in his thinking are unacceptable. Take purpose out of activity, the Pragmatists say, and you rob it of the essentially human quality, mind. It is not strange, then, that they insist that both work and play shall be characterized by purpose, by aim. As attitudes, play and work are not antithetical. Concern for a product enters into work, to be sure, to distinguish it from play, but this additional concern should only enhance the interest felt in the process, given proper conditions. It is only under unfree economic conditions that mind is so minimized in activity that work becomes "labor" or "drudgery." Play, on the other hand, if improperly conditioned, may be bereft of mind and become mere "horse-play."

So with interest and effort, and freedom and discipline. The encouragement of mind in activity obviates the tendency to set these up as contrasts. I must not go into detail here. Dewey, in his *Democracy and Education*,[7] gives the argument. But note that Professor Dewey's conclusion regarding interest and effort, as Dr. Cox has pointed out, is not that either "comes out of" the other. They normally come together, and the line of development is not from one to the other. It is, instead, from less of mind in activity to more of it. The statement holds also for the relation between freedom and discipline, for the Pragmatist understands freedom to mean the effective use of mind in activity, and discipline to be the exercise and growth of this practice. If freedom, so defined, is a conquest, the conquest is a result of its own practice.

The two psychologies that have been discussed contrast sharply at the point of their correlative social ideals. Bagley's psychology is distinctly authoritarian at base; that of the Pragmatists is democratic. The pragmatic conception of the unity of individual and social implies exactly the participation and community which distinguish democracy from every other social ideal.

Because his psychology fails to recognize the growth of wholesome individuality as a correlative process with growth of participation, Professor Bagley may not be in a position to identify the actual weakness of the Progressive schools. Note how the Pragmatists, Dewey and Childs,[8] criticize these schools. They say that, in the movement of education in the United States to serve "the wider office of social reconstruction," the schools have seized upon the element of "creative activity" and have emphasized this apart from the whole of the theory required. This element is, they admit, essential, but needs embodiment in a context of socially significant activity, in joint work. The pragmatic theory which underlies the progressive movement in education has been in many instances as badly misrepresented by practice, because partially grasped by the Progressives, as by theorists of Bagley's school of individualism.

Professor Bagley's criticism should cause progressive education to re-examine the theory on which it is based and round itself out by actually finding for itself what it so urgently needs at this time, namely, an inclusive philosophy, a social theory. But progressive education must move ahead. It cannot found its method on the outworn psychology of Old Individualism.

[7] Chapter X, on "Interest and Discipline."
[8] Kilpatrick, W. H. (Ed.), *The Educational Frontier*, p. 33.

# THE CLEARING HOUSE

## TRIPS, EXCURSIONS, AND LECTURES

### Organization for an Excursion

What steps should be taken to prepare for excursions?

1. *Setting the problem.*

The success of any excursion depends upon the preparation and guidance given beforehand by the teacher in charge. This paper is based on our policies in general and a specific experience of our fifth grade going to the New York City Aquarium. On this trip our theories received the acid test of actual experience.

Trips should not "come out of a clear sky" or from some one's fancy. Class activity is the best basis for selection as this motivates and gives purpose to the trip.

The selection of the place for visitation should be made by children and teacher together. Several places may fit the need, but just what is wanted should be brought out in the discussions. This weighed against what different places have to offer as to displays, costs, and accessibility gives an opportunity to develop pupil judgment.

2. *Class activity before the trip.*

The subject matter covering the class activity should receive intensive study. Class reports given by groups or individuals provide ideas and open up the subject for discussion. If some individual student has been to the place selected, have him give a report. The teacher should check the report carefully to make sure that the student gives worth-while facts. When a student realizes he has been to a place where others have not been, he has a tendency to make a "pretty story of it." This difficulty may be overcome by short conference of teacher and pupil before the report is given. If pictures are available, these should be displayed in the room or projected on the screen. Magazine articles or newspaper reports on the subject bring the topic up to date and make it a live subject for conversation at school and in the home.

Soon after the place for visitation has been selected, the teacher should visit it. The entire place should be "taken in." Possible routings of groups, size of groups, arrangements for visitation, providing guides, and the selection of the most outstanding displays should be determined.

Upon returning to the classroom, the teacher should make suggestions of interesting things seen. The interjection of one item of interest will add zest to the class discussion. Leading questions may be prepared for groups to report on.

From her knowledge and experience of visiting the place, problems and questions should be typed for each child to take on the trip. These should be discussed with the teacher beforehand so that the child clearly understands them. These problems make the child responsible for something. He knows what to look for and has a definite purpose. This gives assurance that each child will have something to report to the class on his return. Some may feel that this method would take all the joy from the child of discovering things for himself, but what teacher would have the ability or time to point out all the interesting things a child will see on any excursion? A teacher's plans are better than some guide's plans who does not know what has gone on in the classroom or does not have a child's interest in mind and heart. Some of the problems proposed on the trip to the aquarium follow:

1. Study carefully the colors found in the moon fish.
   Length ..... Weight .....
   Be able to describe the moon fish.
2. Make a special study of the plan of display suggested in Household Aquariums.
3. Common catfish.
   a. Also called *(Bullhead)* and *(Horned Pout)*.
   b. Where found? (Middle and Eastern United States.)
   c. Compare habits of catfish with those of a hen and chickens. (The old fishes lead the young in schools and care for them as the hen for her chickens.)

3. *Interest of parents.*

Parent interest is always necessary for excursions. The child should explain to his parents what the class is doing and why it is necessary to see the actual object or place of interest. The children should report parents' response and help each other sell the idea to their parents. The teacher or some student should talk at the meeting of class mothers or at the Parent-Teacher Association meeting. Some mothers can be obtained who will take charge of groups and help them with their problems and questions.

4. *Physical arrangements.*

About a week before the excursion a form letter is sent home above the signature of the teacher and principal. The letter explains the purpose of the trip and place to be visited. The date is set with time of starting and returning. The number of cars needed is stated and a place is allowed for indicating if a parent will furnish a car and how many it will carry. The parent must sign and return the letter with permission for the child to go on the trip. This makes the parent share the responsibility with the school.

The mothers driving or going on the excursion act as hostesses for those in their groups. Children of parents taking cars are given a chance to choose those going in their car. The suggestion is made to be very certain every boy and girl has an invitation. This has resulted in interest in the unpopular child and others outside their immediate social group.

Names of the children going in a car are given to the driver and exchanges are not permitted. The complete list of names is given to the head class mother, which relieves the teacher from some worry and questions. Children are returned to the school building or the home, as previously agreed upon. On trips covering the whole day, exact information is given about lunch. If lunches are taken it is stated just what time and where they will be eaten. If lunch is to be purchased, the place of eating and approximate cost is given.

### Correlation of Activities

To secure the full benefit of a trip, correlation between several departments is desired. Last year, in the fifth grade trip to the aquarium, pictures of fish with their names were placed in the science room. The science supervisor made suggestions, brought in a collection of pictures and supplementary reading materials for class use, answered questions, and went on the trip to follow out the project.

The supervisor of art was brought into the correlated unit by discussing ways of painting fish in their natural habitat. A few special fish were selected for study and the supervisor went along to discuss with the children the problem of color and how to make the fish look like they were in water, swimming. This art project was followed for several weeks. The large 22" x 28" pictures were mounted; some were placed in the art room and some in the science room.

The girls made special use of their experience by making in their domestic art class a tapestry with a fish design. Each girl or group of girls used the topic of their special

report as the motive of a square block. Crayon was used to draw the design and bring out the color. This was pressed with a hot iron, which set the crayon and made it permanent. These blocks were then sewed together, making a large tapestry.

Many means were found of developing better English. Reports were written and booklets made for permanent keeping. Newspaper articles were written and sent to the local paper as the school news for the week. Oral reports were given before the class. An assembly of several classes was arranged, at which time oral reports were given and pictures shown.

Original problems were made in arithmetic as an outgrowth of the trip.

### Results

Results are the final check on any excursion. One desirable thing was the leadership developed by use of chairmen for the various groups. Coöperation was secured between the child, teacher, and parent. It was an education for the parents and they helped very much with follow-up work done at home. The activity was motivated and a more profound interest for subject matter was shown. The children learned the value of pictures and magazines which will make such material more vital in future school work. The aquarium was revisited by individuals for closer study and a check up on disputable points. This necessitated other parents' going, which spread the interest and information as to just what the school was doing. The first-hand experience of seeing the fish and other animals made the entire study real and alive to every child. The visual contact made the factual knowledge received more lasting, and recall will be permanent.

The personal effects of such an experience are always interesting. On the return trip one girl was heard to remark, "I've seen so much that my eyes are tired, but I never had such a 'grand' day in all my life." The next morning a message of appreciation from a mother was brought to the teacher by an older brother of a class member. To many the school was made brighter for the rest of the year.

Several children were interested in purchasing guide books and pictures. At first one might say that was child nature, but the desire to own and keep material for future use was prevalent. Judgment entered in when one considers that candy was being sold on all sides.

Excursions are necessary in the best practices of teaching today. They are very helpful and sufficient results can be secured to justify the time and effort used. However, the success depends upon the preparation made beforehand; this falls directly on the teacher first of all and a coöperating spirit of the principal and supervisors.

Charles A. Spacht, Principal,
Allie Lenore Harman, Teacher,
Henry Barnard School,
New Rochelle, N. Y.

## A UNIT ON THE STORY OF NUMBER

When we started to read "The Story of Number," the children felt that they knew very little about the subject. They decided to plan what they would do in the way of interesting activities as they read the story.

As we read a few pages each day, the children underlined unfamiliar words to be learned in spelling class. This list contained eighty-four new words. When mention was made of certain types of number, such as the Roman numerals, the Babylonian system of sixty, etc., the children made a note to remind them to find out more about it during arithmetic period. The same was done with any part of the reading material that seemed to suggest information about social studies necessary to an understanding of the story of number.

As we read each day, we discussed the important changes that were made in number and the races of people who tried to simplify a system of number.

ACTIVITIES

1. Children referred to arithmetic books to find out the values of Roman numerals.
2. Children wrote to fifty in Roman numerals to understand the difficulties encountered. Long way: XXXXVIII—48. Short way: XLVIII—48.
3. Children found out that a method of placing a numeral of smaller value before a numeral of greater value subtracted from it and made the use of Roman numerals somewhat easier.
4. The children listed and brought in illustrations of the use of Roman numerals today.
   a. Chapters in books.
   b. Dates on buildings.
   c. Dates on sheets of music.
   d. Dates when books are copyrighted.
   e. Steps in outlines, etc.
5. Children learned how to read and write dates in Roman numerals.
6. Inquiries were made at home and from outsiders to find out proper courtroom procedure.
7. A subpoena was secured, studied and filled out.
8. Table of time was learned by the lower grade children because it was a direct result of the Babylonian system of sixty.
9. The upper grade children studied arc and angle measure because of its relationship to the Babylonian system of sixty.
10. This led to a study of time and distance, estimating time when the number of degrees are known, etc.
11. Study of International Date Line—meaning and purpose;
    Standard Time—Daylight Time; four time sections in the United States.
12. Reference books (*The Book of Knowledge*) were used to find information about the work of Charlemagne in France and the educational effect throughout Europe.
13. Maps were drawn to be used in the play.
14. Charts and drawings were made to make clear some parts of the number systems.
15. In making the titles of their drawings, the children learned how to measure, space, and plan the printing. This involved the use of the yard and foot rules, of addition, subtraction, and multiplication of fractions.

Each letter 1¼″ Space ¼″ between letters
8 letters ×8 ×8
2 2″ spacing
8 10″ lettering
10″ 12″
22″
12 use
2) 10
5″ on one side

After we had finished Charlemagne, the lack of ancient history books suitable for children in sixth and seventh grades made it necessary for me to give to the children the information they needed in Social Studies.

16. A study of the mechanical appliances which have increased the value of the Hindu-Arabic system:
    a. Weighing and computing scales—
       cost per pound.
       cost per weight.
    b. Comptometer—Felt.
    c. Cash Register—Ritty.
    d. Printing Device and Adding Machine—Barbour.
    e. Classifying and Tabulating Machine—U. S. Census Bureau for compiling statistics—Hollerith.

A spelling list of eighty-four words was compiled.

A play, called "How Number Originated," was composed by the children and presented by them, with great enthusiasm and benefit in terms of lasting values.[1]

MARGARET BRICKLEY,
Riverside School,
Oxford, Conn.

[1] In accordance with our usual custom, we are omitting the text of the play.—Ed.

# EDITORIAL COMMENT AND REPORT

## LEADERSHIP OR TRAINING IN TECHNIQUE

The action of the Massachusetts supervisors in undertaking a program for the improvement of character education is significant. Historically, supervision has been concerned with the act of teaching. It has had reference to lesson plans, giving out of assignments, oversight of study from books and, above all, the conduct of the recitation. It has regarded the teacher as first, last, and always a technician and the supervisor as a super-technician.

Supervisors have commonly been chosen from among the more skillful teachers—chosen to impart something of their own skill in handling classes to other teachers. Thus training in technique has held the place of prominence in supervision just as it has in normal school work.

Such programs as that in Massachusetts strike a new note, or rather a new chord. It is proposed to conduct an investigation as to how all the experiences of the school may be made to yield the maximum of opportunity for growth in the moral self-direction of the pupils. This involves more than an attempt to learn how existing programs can be conducted more effectively; it involves trying out new programs. In a word, through coöperative group endeavor the truth as to how the curriculum of the schools can be shaped toward better character building will be sought. This means research—research in adaptation of the school program of activities as a whole.

Techniques are of course involved. But it will require more than mere technicians to carry out such a supervisory project. It will require leadership, educational statesmanship, the sort of qualifications that the yearbooks of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction have increasingly emphasized. *Effective Instructional Leadership* and *Scientific Method in Supervisory Programs* are titles that suggest the same point of view that the Massachusetts group has adopted and that is evidently on the way to transform the supervisory office. They still make history in Massachusetts.

J. F. H.

## PARTICIPATING IN EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS[1]

The way of the pioneer is hard. The resistive force of inertia, tradition, and vested interests is almost insurmountable. And yet the frontier is ever receding before the power of the pioneer, educational or otherwise.

There are certain expressions which have been so common in the classroom that they have come largely to typify the teaching situation, and to a large extent to dominate it. Can you imagine a classroom where the teacher does not say, "Close your books," "Put everything in your desks," "Be sure to leave all books, notes, etc., at home, when you appear for the examination," and similar expressions? If you will note these expressions you will readily see what an emphasis they place on memorizing. It is quite evident that the pupils are to close their books because they are to be required to reproduce what is in the books, from memory. Similarly all books are to be left at home on examination day, so that there can be no recourse to them in the work of the examination. The memory must be relied on for all necessary items.

[1] Addressed to the principals of the South District in St. Louis as one of a series of supervisory letters.

In the modern school we emphasize *thinking* rather than *memorizing*. And yet the above expressions are still quite common in our classrooms. "The old order changeth, giving place to the new," but the force of habit and tradition are such that the change is frustrated in many places. I imagine it would be fair to state that all progressive educators favor an emphasis on thinking rather than memorizing in the classroom. This is not to say there is no further place for memorizing. A certain minimum of memorizing is necessary. But it is to say that the former over-emphasis on memorizing should be entirely eliminated. Much of the present memorizing is unnecessary and inadvisable.

What would be your estimate of a teacher who practically never said, "Close your books"; who, rather, habitually said, "Open your books; we shall now proceed with the solution of our problem. Get together all the materials which will aid us"? And on examination day she would say: "Please bring to class your books, notes, and reference materials. The examination will be a test of your ability to find and use effectively the facts, principles, and materials which are essentials in solving problems in this field." Which teacher would be preparing the pupil to cope effectively with the problems he is later to face? It seems self-evident that this latter teacher I have described is the one who is giving the superior training.

Even though a pupil memorizes perfectly the spelling of a word, or any given fact, at a particular time, it must be admitted that unless the item in question is brought to attention again and again by functional use, it will soon fade from memory. Hence, even though facts are effectively memorized, it is a futile procedure, unless adequate future use is made of them. This is seldom if ever done. It is evident that it is the power to think for one's self that is really important. If one knows where and how to find a fact, he can find it whenever he needs it. He does not need to memorize it. The vital element is what he is able and disposed to do with it when he gets it. The ability to solve the problems which face one is what is desired and needed.

If this is true, should we not use our influence along this line of educational progress, taking advantage of every opportunity to steer teachers away from the former over-emphasis on memorizing, and encouraging every effort to place an adequate emphasis on thinking, the development and improvement of which is, perhaps, the chief purpose of education. If the hope of the future of mankind is not through the development and improvement of thinking, is there any hope for it?

Yours for keeping the wheels of educational progress moving,

F. M. Underwood,
St. Louis, Mo.

## ANNUAL MEETING OF GEOGRAPHY TEACHERS

The National Council of Geography Teachers will hold its annual convention in Philadelphia, December 26 and 27. Among the topics for discussions are: field work, the use of geographic tools, urban studies, and teacher education. Professor Gray of the University of Chicago and Dr. Isaiah Bowman, Director of the American Geographical Society, will attend as speakers.

## A PROGRAM OF EXPERIMENTATION IN CHARACTER EDUCATION

The association of general supervisors of Massachusetts has planned a three-year cooperative program of experimentation in character education. Members will report progress from time to time at the meetings of the society. An outline of points for discussion in developing the program has been prepared, as follows:

I. Interpretation of Related Terms.

"Character is the integration of values; doing the best possible thing in each situation."

"Citizenship is character in specific action."

Civics represents a knowledge (or the study of) our governmental machinery.

II. Some Bases of Understanding.

1. "In industrial society practically all tasks are coöperative in character; interdependence rather than independence is the rule of life."
2. "Knowledge and understanding are essential to intelligent action, but they do not guarantee such action."
3. "Although both hereditary and environmental factors are influential in personality development, environment seems greatly to outweigh heredity in determining specific modes of response or conduct."
4. "The framework of character consists of relatively specific habits of response to specific situations."
5. "Children cannot develop general traits or ideals merely by talking, hearing or reading about them in general terms."
6. "Character as a whole depends more upon a variety of other factors, largely social, than it does upon the individual's physical condition or physiological and chemical processes."
7. "Of all the environmental forces playing upon the child, the most influential appear to center in those relatively intimate social groupings of the home, family, friends, and associates."
8. "Each classroom tends to develop its own characteristic morale, whether good or bad, and this morale grows stronger from year to year."
9. The behavior of the children of any given school is largely determined by the citizenship or character standards *developed and practiced by teachers and pupils.*
10. The desirable citizen or character is one who thinks, feels, and does his work in such a way that his service makes possible a better, higher common good.
11. Social responsibility and character are developed by practice in meeting problems of conduct rather than by theoretical talk about conduct, or listening to stories about conduct. Standards of conduct grow largely out of experience.
12. Every child is entitled to abundant opportunity for thought and action, so that he may have practice in making his own decisions or choices.
13. Good character is built up gradually, involving the problem of "grading"—progressive ability levels.

III. The World in Which the Child Lives.

1. The home.
2. The community.
   - Public social agencies
     - Public library
     - Public museum
     - Playgrounds, parks
     - Churches
   - Private social agencies
     - Radio, movies, newsstands
     - Women's clubs
     - Scout organizations
     - Commercial enterprises such as factories, stores, dairies
3. The school.

What are the child's reactions to these?

IV. Suggestive Possibilities for Experimentation.

1. Participation by children in school controls:
   - School or Student Council
   - School Citizens' League
2. Self-chosen work—all school grades.
3. Development of valuable interests through the curriculum.
4. Specific out-of-school activities, such as
   - Inventory of children's out-of-school activities
   - Planning suggestive wholesome weekly program for a child
5. Underlying causes of misdemeanors as reported to the principal.
6. Junior civic offenses:
   - Care of public and personal property
   - Defacing property
   - Petty thieving
   - Ringing fire alarm
   - Hallowe'en pranks
   - Trespassing

7. Junior Red Cross—how can it be made a more vital working force?
8. Use of moral knowledge test—follow-up.
9. Trips and excursions. What values derived?
10. Vacation activities. What values derived?
11. The assembly as an instrument in the character development of a whole school.
12. Graduate opportunities and graduated temptations.
13. Individual diagnosis.
14. Classroom procedures.

The chairman of the committee in charge of the program is Miss Marian J. Wesley, Elementary Supervisor, of Waltham.

## HOW TO SAVE CHILDREN'S EYES

The National Society for the Prevention of Blindness offers a useful pamphlet on "A Program of Eye Health in a School System," by Miss Mary E. Smith, Director of Nursing Activities. This includes a score card with which to evaluate the conditions surrounding the pupils and their habits in the use of their eyes. The New York address of the Society is 50 West 50th Street. Ask for Publication 143. Cost, ten cents.

## THE HIGH SCHOOL TERCENTENARY

Secondary schools may obtain useful information about how to celebrate the three hundredth anniversary of the American high school from the Celebration Committee, Room 1306, 155 East 44th Street, New York City.

## THE CONSUMER LEARNS DECIMALS

How decimals may be learned through projects in practical arts in an ordinary classroom is told in a bulletin issued by the Curriculum Laboratory of Western Reserve University. The class made tooth powder, furniture polish, ink, hand lotion, and paste, and discovered by comparing costs that the commercial articles corresponding were several times more costly but not any better. Incidentally they found much use for decimal fractions.

The bulletin which gives an account of the whole experience costs fifteen cents.

## DIFFERENTIAL TESTING

Professor S. A. Courtis reënters the field of standard tests with a plan for measuring growth as well as achievement. He contends that we have been finding out only part of what we want to know. For example, by comparing the ability of the pupil to add with his ability to copy numbers, we may discover what degree of mastery of addition he has actually attained. Materials for a test in addition combinations has been printed and may be obtained from Dr. Courtis at the University of Michigan.

## A PSYCHIATRIC SERVICE FOR TEACHERS

A great deal of comment has been aroused by the statement of a New York City school physician to the effect that four per cent of the city's teachers are "mentally unfit or insane." This remark, as interpreted by many psychiatrists and other mental hygiene workers, presumably does not indicate that these teachers are actually insane or in need of treatment in a mental hospital, but refers rather to the undoubtedly large number of teachers who are maladjusted emotionally or in their personal relationships.

It is readily realized that in any school system there are teachers not fitted, by reason of their personalities, to deal with children. Many of these have been in the school system for long periods, and possibly their personality difficulties were not present when they began teaching, but developed gradually.

It does not appear that teachers on the

whole are any more unstable than any other professional group, according to studies of mental disease expectancy based on admission to mental hospitals. It is vitally important, however, that persons so prominently engaged in training children to lead useful and happy lives should themselves have adequate mental and temperamental equipment. Too often, teachers are selected for their educational achievements without consideration of their ability to make and maintain pleasant personal contacts and to refrain from coloring their teaching with their own emotional attitudes.

It has been suggested by Dr. Lawson G. Lowrey, in regard to the New York City school system, that a psychiatric consultation service should be established as a part of the Board of Education, which would from time to time examine every teacher in the public school system and which might also be consulted by the teachers themselves in regard to their own problems.

Such a consultation bureau for teachers appears to be the next step in the introduction of mental hygiene to the schools. Many school systems now have their own child guidance clinics, or have access to those conducted by the city or state; but in relatively few instances is it possible for the clinic staff to discuss with the teacher, in a therapeutic way, any problems which may result from the teacher's personality or attitude. That such problems exist is recognized by many.

—MENTAL HYGIENE

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## FIFTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction

ATLANTIC CITY, N. J.

February 26-27, 1935

# THE READER'S GUIDE

## CONTRIBUTIONS TO SECONDARY EDUCATION

Any attempt to portray the varied activities of the modern American high school between the covers of one book is certain to strain the ingenuity and versatility of the author, even to the breaking point. Eventually he surely must elect to travel one of several divergent paths. To tread them all simultaneously he needs must be a superman with more legs than the centipede—and these myriads of legs must have knee action and be detachable at the hips.

The high school, that most astounding infant of our western world, has grown into a cantankerous youth who is everlastingly upsetting the plans and promises of his elders. To picture the activities of this youth the author must follow the whole of society, not alone while it is on parade, but also behind the scenes. For we can say that the modern American high school does touch—even if lightly at times—upon all phases of modern existence. Not only the professional phases of high-school organization and control are vital to the picture, but the lives these millions of pupils live—yes, have lived and will live—cannot be overlooked. The *mores* of the society that controls the schools and the philosophies that are shaping our future existence must be presented in their true light if we are to gain an accurate idea of the function of the desirable high school. Its curriculum carries the student in turn from a consideration of the place of spinach or onions in the diet to the relation of men to machines, from the place of justice and political honesty in a democracy to the cut and color of milady's gown—the all of modern civilization is the battlefield of the modern high school. Any attempt to present this complete miscellany must result in inadequate compromises.

Probably the authors of the volumes here reviewed would be the first to admit the necessity of countless omissions and the inevitability of misleading generalizations. Happily, however, they have traveled in quite different directions.

Draper and Roberts[1] have given us a summary of what *the* American high school is—if, indeed, there exists *the* American high school. Controversies, problems, philosophies, reorganization, finances have concerned them little. Their opinions, founded on wide experience, are given for what they are worth. Their conclusions are not the same as yours or mine any more than your opinion would agree with mine as to the nature of that mythical person—the *average American*. A few statements will illustrate their style:

> The high school is dominant, not subordinate.
>
> The high school is dynamic and changing, not static and fixed.
>
> As in all institutions of secondary education, the junior high school plan of guidance is built upon the theory that the student should receive both group and individual guidance. Individual guidance grows out of group procedures and the reactions which are developed there.

Smith[2] followed a very different path from the one chosen by Draper and Roberts. He elected to give us a glimpse of the high school by selecting representative actions of schools, committees, authors, in-

[1] *Principles of Secondary Education.* By Edgar M. Draper and Alexander C. Roberts. Century Company, 1932.
[2] *Secondary Education in the United States.* By William A. Smith. The Macmillan Company, 1932.

vestigators, states, communities, etc. After presenting a chronological sketch of the development of the secondary school in America, he gave us a picture of typical schools abroad. He then plunged into his "cases" here at home. He presented the scientific study of education, with especial reference to the high school, with scholarly accuracy. We have in his volume an indispensable handbook of secondary education.

Briggs[3] followed neither of the plans outlined above. He delved directly into the problem of what the high school should become. Only by example did he devote his attention to what it is. He apparently assumed a knowledge on the part of the reader of the significant facts stressed so consistently by Smith. He formulated ten issues of secondary education without any attempt at being too scientific in the wording of the issues—he stated them as he wished to have them stated. He then developed each issue in terms of a broad social policy. These ten issues draw together the major controversial questions concerning general policy.

Briggs does not tell us what kind of high school he would have. He gives us definite suggestions as to the way to work out the answers to our own questions. He admits frankly, as any student of the problem must, that he does not know what should be taught. He maintains, however, that this is the major problem that the school must solve—what should be taught? He condemns the hit-and-usually-miss methods so generally used in the schools of today. His school would be one in which procedures would be reasoned. He admits the possibility and probability of many failures, but if there were failures he would have the cause analyzed, if possible.

Briggs has written for the scholar, almost I can say for the social philosopher. For those who can really condition the future of the new secondary school, this volume will be most stimulating. Yes, at times it will be disconcerting and irritating. But someone needed to write this book and Briggs has done it fearlessly. At least we shall have something to "pick" at for the next ten years.

While Draper and Roberts and Smith propose to professionalize teaching, Briggs proposes to make the professional teacher an expert in secondary education.

FORREST E. LONG,
New York University.

## A COMPLETE GUIDE FOR THE BEGINNER

Before producing his own first book[4] in education, Burton examined eighteen texts and a number of syllabi having the same general purpose. He found marked differences both as to the aims of an introductory course in education and as to the topics and materials which should be included. His own selection and organization of content for the course he has explained at length by telling how his plan was gradually worked out experimentally in university classes. He adopted Judd's point of view as to the scientific study of educational problems, took into account the Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study and the personal interests of students, drew upon the reports which students made of their experience in various school systems, and finally applied the results of his own reading on "education as a function and institution of civilization." The result was a book in seven parts, with twenty-nine chapters, beginning with "The Function and Aim of Education" and "The Method of Educational Thinking," proceeding with "The School System of the United States," "The Curriculum," "The Pupil Population,"

[3] *Secondary Education.* By Thomas H. Briggs. The Macmillan Company, 1933.
[4] *Introduction to Education.* By William H. Burton. D. Appleton-Century Company, 1934.

and "The Educative Process," and ending with "Education as a Profession."

College classes will find this "Introduction" very acceptable. It wisely refrains from attempting in a first course to treat at length of classroom activities. It presents opposing views and a large amount of data; at the same time the author's own presence is felt throughout as a friendly guide and helper. The aims to be reached and the procedures which the author himself uses are clearly indicated; there is an abundance of teaching "apparatus," and the text is fully documented. One could hardly ask for more.

Because of the information presented in succinct form and the excellent bibliographies, this book will prove useful as a reference by persons who are beyond—perhaps far beyond—the stage of beginner. It should be in public libraries for the patrons who can and will give intelligent consideration to social questions, as well as in the libraries of normal schools, teachers' colleges, and university schools of education.

J. F. H.

## ON USING MOTION PICTURES

*Modern Trends in Education*[5] is a "syllabus for a teacher-training course utilizing educational talking pictures." The foundation was laid for this course when Kilpatrick, Gates, and others gave brief talks which were reproduced by means of sound films. These have been improved upon and added to so that the complete series of studies includes fourteen topics or units arranged under four general heads: philosophy of education, teaching methods, educational and mental measurements, and educational and vocational guidance. Prefaces and marginal notes, together with topics for study and selected references accompany the text of the several talks of the authorities, which are given as in the films. In this way the material is arranged as a course in education.

The ground covered, as will readily be seen, is extensive. Probably teachers in service, already more or less familiar with the problems considered, will be most profited by such a course. It will have interest for many as an example of what may be done with talking pictures in education. So far as the several topics are pursued, the treatment is distinctly modern and helpful. A comparatively small library of references will supply the collateral reading.

A report on "Motion Pictures in Education in the United States," originally prepared by the Office of Education for an international congress on cinematography to be held in Rome, has been published for general use.[6] This brings together in compact form a body of factual data, accompanied with interpretations of the present situation. There are also a bibliography and a list of the exhibits sent to the congress.

J. F. H.

## AMONG THE YEARBOOKS

One of the two parts of the current yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education treats of a controversial subject, "The Activity Movement."[7] The first step in its preparation was taken by the late Professor Bonser, who secured some forty "definitions" of the activity curriculum. Starting with these, the committee under the new chairman, Professor Mossman, compiled a report including a history of activism (by Professor Woody, University of Pennsylvania), an analysis of the definitions obtained from correspondents,

[5] *Modern Trends in Education.* Edited by the Educational Research Staff of Erpi Picture Consultants, Inc., 250 West 57th Street, New York City, 1933.
[6] *Motion Pictures in Education.* By Cline M. Koon and others. University of Chicago Press, 1934.
[7] National Society for the Study of Education, Thirty-third Yearbook, Part II—*The Activity Movement.* Public School Publishing Company, 1934.

books, and courses of study, a description of ways of interpreting the concept in actual practice, comments from theorists and from workers in the schools, the problem of evaluation, controversial issues, and statements of position by the committee as a whole and by individual members.

The researches of this committee show that there is great diversity of opinion and practice in regard to "activity" in school. Certain trends are, however, fairly distinct. There is a movement away from formal textbook study and recitation toward informal problem attack and increased pupil participation. So far the movement is one having to do with method rather than social aims. Its psychological sanctions have not been adequately set forth. There is needless confusion as to terminology.

This yearbook will serve to clarify the situation and sharpen the issues involved. It can hardly be expected to decide moot questions upon which the parties to the dispute are as far apart as they appear to be at present. All students who wish a fair and unbiased presentation of the position of the activists and of some of their critics will find it here. They will find also much useful information as to how schools attempt to provide for pupil activity, and a selected bibliography by means of which they can pursue the subject.

The Department of Classroom Teachers chose for its eighth yearbook[8] the title, *Teacher and Public: A Handbook of Interpretation for Teachers.* The committee in charge, of which Miss Daisy Lord of Waterbury, Connecticut, was chairman, was made up wholly of high school teachers. The assistance of Miss Agnes Winn, Dr. William G. Carr, and Mr. Ivan A. Booker of the N. E. A. headquarters staff is acknowledged.

For the most part the material assembled bears on the public relations of teachers—specifically, what to tell the public about the schools and how to tell it. Some chapters are not closely related to this theme. Such, for example, are those on "Financing the Schools" and "The Modern Teacher." The most definitely helpful chapters are those on the use of the public press and the radio. The bibliographies are extensive and will prove of great value in education courses in which school publicity is discussed.

*Aids to Teaching in the Elementary School,*[9] the Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, is a fitting sequel to the Twelfth Yearbook on *Elementary School Libraries.* Mr. John S. Thomas, Principal of the Clippert School in Detroit, assisted by Miss Helen Shove of Minneapolis, Miss Bess Clement of Clarksdale, Mississippi, Dr. Frank W. Hubbard of the Research Division of the N. E. A., and Miss Eva G. Pinkston, Executive Secretary of the Department, has brought together in usable form a large amount of information as to what the schools throughout the country are doing to supplement reading material with visual and other aids.

The work of the editorial committee in arranging the contributions made by principals and others, interpreting them, and supplementing them with appropriate quotations from authorities as well as with excellent bibliographies, has been intelligently done. The index is especially to be commended. Wide and satisfactory use of this volume can confidently be predicted.

The current interest in social problems and the enrichment and redirection of the social studies insures a welcome for the Fourth Yearbook of the National Council

[8] *Teacher and Public.* Eighth Yearbook, Department of Classroom Teachers. National Education Association, 1934.

[9] *Aids to Teaching in the Elementary School.* Thirteenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1934.

for the Social Studies,[10] also a department of the N. E. A. This is devoted to a study of the curriculum in the social studies. The first four chapters, of a general nature, are followed by accounts of the programs now in use in nine centers. Professor Judd writes of "Needed Revisions," Professor Hulfish of "Critical Considerations in Curriculum-Making," Mr. Wesley of "Techniques," and Superintendent White of "The School Administrator's Demands." The reports from Denver, Tulsa, Des Moines, San Antonio, Pasadena, Reading, and some of the private schools are specific and will compensate to a degree for the lack of this quality in the "Conclusions" of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. On the whole, more attention is paid to the high school than to the elementary school. Probably reform on the higher levels is more needed at this time.

An extensive bibliography, prepared by Miss Florence H. Wilson and Miss Marguerite Atwood, concludes the work.

As a result of a survey of conditions made in 1930, the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the N. E. A. instituted a series of studies of important topics which the facts gathered in the survey seemed to indicate. These topics were: evaluation, creativeness, integration, and scientific method. The current yearbook[11] of this Department relates to the fourth of these topics and thus completes the series planned in 1930.

The first two chapters are chapters of definition. The nature of scientific method and the nature and functions of supervision are restated. Then follow seven chapters of application: "How to Use the Scientific Method in the Organization of Supervision," "In Planning the Supervisory Program as a Whole," "In the Appraisal of Instruction," "In the Promotion of Teacher Growth," "In Curriculum Studies," "In the Preparation and Installation of Courses of Study," and "In the Selection and Preparation of Instructional Materials." Most of the chapters conclude with summaries which enable the reader to get the main points without undue effort on his part.

The yearbook as a whole gives evidence of very careful preparation. It is perfectly organized and clearly written. There is abundant cross reference, both between chapters and to earlier yearbooks of the Department. Theoretical statements of principles are backed up with examples from current practice. In short, the report is an excellent example of the use of scientific method.

J. F. H.

## SIGNIFICANT ARTICLES

### The New Education Fellowship in South Africa

In the *New Era* for September-October will be found a report of the South African Conference of the New Education Fellowship and some of the papers read before it. General Smuts declared in his address that "We are switching over from one system of society to another; we are shifting from a middle-class society to a pure democracy, from a bourgeois world to a proletarian world." He also contended that "science and technology are changing the face of the earth and in so doing they are inevitably creating problems of enormous magnitude for our civilization. These must be faced and overcome, not only by the scientist, the industrialist, and the politician, but also by those who are engaged in educating the

[10] *The Social Studies Curriculum.* Fourth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies. McKinley Publishing Company, 1934.
[11] *Scientific Method in Supervisory Programs.* By Paul T. Rankin and others. Seventh Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934.

rising generation." Professor Rugg spoke to the same general theme, using as his topic, "Education and the Great Transition." The forty years between 1890 and 1930 he regards as a period of transition between the older industrial age and the new age of potential plenty. His address was devoted to an exposition of this basic idea and of the implications which it carries for education.

### Strategy versus Tactics in Educational Testing

Most of the first number of the *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* for this school year is given over to a plan for a campaign of educational testing by Dr. Ben D. Wood, Director of the Educational Records Bureau in New York City. Dr. Wood pleads for an inclusive program on broad lines and describes at length a cumulative record card for child accounting prepared for and distributed by the American Council on Education. He holds that the growth of pupils should be measured over a period of years so that growth curves can be plotted. Test results should be made comparable. The major purpose of guidance should control the work. "The real function of tests," he says, "is continuous study of individuals." The cumulative comparable record is the "key instrument."

### Activities of the Principals' Department

The October issue of *The National Elementary Principal* is a convention number. Most of the papers presented at the summer meeting of the Department are made available, and in addition there is a large grist of news items as to the business transacted by the officers and members of the board. Assistant Secretary Dickinson of the U. S. Department of Commerce, in his paper, called attention to the necessity, if democracy is to maintain itself, of larger numbers of our people being able to make wise social judgments. Intelligence must be quickened, our social conditions must be better understood, and the power of abstract thinking must be increased. Miss Elsie E. Green, Principal of the Whittier School, Washington, D. C., sought to emphasize the possibilities of dynamic leadership by the principal. Associate Superintendent Bayne, of New York City, spoke on "Constructive and Preventive Aspects of Teacher Health." Principal Giles D. Clarke, of Albany, showed how the elementary school principalship can be elevated, and Superintendent Jesse H. Mason of Canton, Ohio, described the place of the principalship in the schools of tomorrow.

### The Social Studies Commission Finds a Defender

In *School and Society* for October 27 will be found an excellent summary of the conclusions reached by the Commission on the Social Studies appointed by the American Historical Association from the pen of Professor P. W. L. Cox, of New York University. The writer contends that the report should be examined with the presupposition that the data upon which the conclusions are based will be found in the as-yet-unpublished volumes by individual members of the Commission, to which reference is made in the report. He holds also that the report should be read without bias from statements and writings which members of the Commission have made elsewhere. He regards the charges made by Professor Bobbitt that the report is "communistic" and subversive of democracy quite unfounded. On the contrary, much of it is in substantial harmony with the position taken by Bobbitt himself in his books on the curriculum of the schools. As a whole, the article may be considered an answer to that of Professor Bobbitt in *School and Society* for August 18, which was summarized in the last number of this journal.[1]

[1] *Educational Method*, November, 1934, p. 110.

### Essays in Progressive Education

The papers read at the Saturday evening meeting of the National Society for the Study of Education in Cleveland last February will be found in the journal of the Progressive Education Association for October, with other related material. Professor Brim urges a careful analysis of the underlying psychology and philosophy as necessary to further advance of the movement. Professor Gray sets forth certain controversial issues and Secretary Whipple takes the rôle of adverse critic. Professor Kilpatrick, not present at the meeting, writes on "The Essentials" and presumably satisfies, at least in part, Brim's plea for more theory. Contributions by Professor Mossman, Professor Dunn, and Miss Keliher help to complete the symposium. Professor Cox (New York University) presents "Austrian Teachers in the Crisis."

### Research in English

The first report of the Committee on Research of the National Council of Teachers of English (Dr. Dora V. Smith, Chairman) is printed in *The English Journal* for November. The general topic is "The Contributions of Research to Teaching and Curriculum-Making in English, January, 1933, through June, 1934." The installment at hand deals with composition, grammar, and the mechanics of English. Reports on other phases will follow. The references in the report are summarized under the following heads: "Objectives of the Teaching of Composition"; "Out-of-School Language Activities"; "Oral English"; "Sentence Structure"; "Standards of English Usage"; "The Teaching of Grammar and the Mechanics of English"; "Diagnosis of Difficulty in English"; "Methods of Teaching Composition"; "Measurement of Results in Composition." A much wider range of sources was used in compiling the references than in the report recently published by the Educational Research Association.

### THE NEW BOOKS

*Psychological Diagnosis in Social Adjustment.* By Percival M. Symonds. New York: American Book Co., 1934. Pp. 362.

*Juvenile Probation.* By Belle Boone Beard. New York: American Book Co., 1934. Pp. 219.

*The Development of Modern Education.* By Frederick Eby and Charles F. Arrowood. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1934. Pp. 922. Illus. $3.50.

*Supervision in Secondary Schools.* By Harl R. Douglass and Charles W. Boardman. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934. Pp. 564. $2.75.

*This Changing World.* By S. Ralph Powers, Elsie F. Neuner, and Herbert B. Bruner. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1934. Pp. 561. Illus. $1.40.

*Story Pictures of Farm Animals.* By John Y. Beaty. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co., 1934. Pp. 158. Illus. $0.70.

*Solid Geometry.* By Elizabeth B. Cowley. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1934. Pp. 230. Illus. $1.28.

*From Galileo to Cosmic Rays—A New Look at Physics.* By Harvey B. Lemon. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934. Pp. 450. Illus. $3.75.

*Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching.* By Algernon Coleman. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934. Pp. 367. $2.75.

*Introduction to the Study of American Education.* By Lester M. Wilson and I. L. Kandel. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1934. Pp. 328.

*Robert's School.* By Stella Yowell. Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Co., 1934. Pp. 124. Illus. $0.60.

*Science in the New Education.* By S. R. Slavson and Robert K. Speer. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1934. Pp. 396. $2.50.

*The Philosophy of John Dewey—A Critical Analysis.* By W. T. Feldman. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1934. Pp. 127. $1.75.

*Beppo and Lucia, Children of Sunny Italy.* By Virginia Olcott. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1934. Pp. 168. Illus. $0.80.

*The Teaching of College English.* By Oscar J. Campbell. (Publication of the National Council of Teachers of English.) New

York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1934. Pp. 164. $1.50.

*Relational and Functional Thinking in Mathematics.* By Herbert R. Hamley. Ninth Yearbook, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. 215. $1.75.

*Achievement at Lincoln School: A Study of Academic Test Results in an Experimental School.* By L. Thomas Hopkins and James E. Mendenhall. New York: Teachers College, 1934. Pp. 65. $1.50.

## IN PAPER COVERS

United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, National Survey of Secondary Education: Monograph No. 1, *Summary,* by Leonard V. Koos and staff; pp. 232; $0.25. Monograph No. 2, *The Horizontal Organization of Secondary Education,* by Grayson N. Kefauver, Victor H. Noll, and C. Elwood Drake; pp. 273; $0.20. Monograph No. 7, *Secondary Education for Negroes,* by Ambrose Caliver; pp. 121; $0.10. Monograph No. 9, *Legal and Regulatory Provisions Affecting Secondary Education,* by Ward W. Keesecker; pp. 114; $0.10. Monograph No. 19, *The Program of Studies,* by A. K. Loomis et al.; pp. 340; $0.15. Monograph No. 26, *Nonathletic Extracurriculum Activities,* by William C. Reavis and George E. Van Dyke; pp. 174, $0.15.

Bulletins of the Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.; 1934: Vol. VI, No. 3, *The Regulation of Pupil Transportation in the United States,* by James C. Eddleman; pp. 81. No. 4, *Measures of Educational Performance in the County School Districts of Kentucky,* by Leo M. Chamberlain; pp. 42.

University of Iowa Studies in Education, 1934: Vol. IX, No. 2, *Research Studies in Elementary School Language No. 1,* by E. A. Betts and O. R. Bontrager; pp. 62. No. 3, *Doctoral Theses in Education II,* by Harry K. Newburn et al.; pp. 122.

Bulletins of the School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind., 1934: Vol. X, No. 3, *Factors Affecting the Organization of School Attendance Units,* by Raleigh W. Holmstedt; pp. 32. No. 4, *The Old World Historical Background of Religious and Moral Education in Schools,* by Henry L. Smith et al.; pp. 144.

Bulletin of Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind., 1934: Vol. XXXV, No. 2, *Concerning Freshman Composition—Tangibles and Intangibles of Achievement,* by H. H. Remmers et al.; pp. 34; $0.25.

Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md., Studies in Education, 1934: No. 21, *Can Attitudes Be Taught?* By Arthur Lichtenstein. Pp. 88.

Research Bulletins of the National Education Association, 1934: Vol. XII, No. 2, *Education for Character;* pp. 36. No. 4, *National Deliberative Committees in Education;* pp. 92.

*1000 and One—The Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films.* Tenth Edition, 1934-35. Educational Screen, Inc., 64 Lake St., Chicago, Ill. Pp. 128. $0.75.

*Sound—A Guide for Use with Educational Sound Pictures.* Prepared by Educational Research Staff of Erpi Picture Consultants in collaboration with Harvey B. Lemon and Hermann I. Schlesinger. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934. Pp. 39. $0.35.

*Manual of Nursery School Practice.* By Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. Iowa City, Iowa: Bulletin of State University of Iowa, New Series No. 730, March 10, 1934. Pp. 215. $1.00.

*A Guide to the Teaching of Home Economics —I. Beginning Foods.* By Cora B. Miller, Regina J. Friant, and Marcia E. Turner. Ames, Iowa: Collegiate Press, Inc., 1934. Pp. 60. $0.65 (or $0.50 each in lots of 5 or more).

*Experiments in Reading.* To accompany *Hidden Treasures in Literature.* By William A. McCall, Luella B. Cook, and George W. Norvell. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1934. Book One, pp. 137; Book Two, pp. 118; Book Three, pp. 116. Each, $0.40.